DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 386 927 FL 023 204

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TITLE	Content-ESL across the USA. Volume III: A Training Packet. A Descriptive Study of Content-ESL Practices.
INSTITUTION	Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	95
CONTRACT	T291004001
NOTE	140p.; For Volumes I, A Technical Report, and II, A Practical Guide, see FL 023 202 and FL 023 203, respectively.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Teaching Guides (For Teacher) (052) -- Tests/Evaluation Instruments (160)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Curriculum Development; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); *Instructional Materials; *Lesson Plans; Limited English Speaking; Second Language Instruction; State Surveys; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Content Area Teaching; Sheltered English

ABSTRACT

The 15 guides included in this training packet were compiled from data gathered during a 3-year study of content-English-as-a-Second-Language (content-ESL) programs across the United States. These 15 guides are intended as stepping stones and idea-generators and include information on curriculum development, material selection and adaptation, and lesson planning. Guidance is also offered on choosing techniques, learning cooperatively, and teaching thematically. Sample surveys, checklists, assessment protocols, and student profiles are included along with program profiles and additional resources. The guides include: (1) "When Is a Content-ESL Program a Good Idea?"; (2) "What Is Sheltered Content Instruction?"; (3) "Where Can You Go for Additional Help?"; (4) "What Should You Read if You Want To Know More about this Approach?"; (5) "What Does a Content-ESL Program Look Like?"; (6) "How Do You Decide Who Should Be in Content-ESL"; (7) "How Will Your Curriculum Change?"; (8) "How Are You Going To Access These Students?"; (9) "How Can You Identify Good Content-ESL Material"; (10) "How Can You Adapt the Material You're Using Now?"; (11) "What Are You Going To Do if You Can't Speak the Students' Language?"; (12) "What Can You Do When You Have a Linguistically Diverse Group in One Classroom?"; (13) "How Can You Make Your Program Fit Your School's and District's Goals?"; and (14 and 15) "How Do You Write a Lesson Plan for Students with Limited English Proficiency?" Contains a substantial reference list. (NAV)

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ED 386 927

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF CONTENT-ESL PRACTICES

Contract Number T291004001

Content-ESL Across the USA

Volume III
A Training Packet

Grace Stovall Burkart
Ken Sheppard

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Training Packet Material

Task 19.3

Volume III

Submitted to

Office of Bilingual Education and

Minority Languages Affairs

Content-ESL Across the USA:
A Training Packet

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Acknowledgements

Many people contributed to the development of these training modules.

First and foremost are the many students, teachers, and administrators across the country who participated in the OBEMLA-funded study of content-ESL practices that led up to their development. The study could not have taken place, nor would these modules would ever have been produced, without their active collaboration.

In addition, Tim D'Emilio (OBEMLA) was instrumental in getting the the project under way, and his colleague Milagros Lanauze provided helpful feedback on an earlier draft.

On the CAL side, Jodi Crandall and Donna Christian were sources of inspiration and support throughout. In addition, Deborah Short, a key research associate on the study and a prominent content-ESL teacher educator, made substantive contributions, as did Ann Galloway.

Finally, two other CAL staff members should be mentioned for their fine professional support: dotti kauffman and Margaret Crandall. Their organizational skills and general efficiency are much appreciated.

HOW ARE THESE MATERIALS GOING TO HELP ME TEACH MY STUDENTS?

These guides were compiled from data gathered during a three-year study of content-ESL programs undertaken by the Center for Applied Linguistics with funding from the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs. The information is a distillation of countless interviews, questionnaires, surveys, and visits to twenty U.S. public schools housing such instructional programs. Every school we looked at closely had a significant limited English proficient (LEP) population, that is, anywhere from 98 to over 500 students. All of these had content-ESL (C-ESL) programs, meaning that the LEP students received instruction in classes that combined instruction in ESL and a content area--math, social studies, or science, for example. LEP students spent either an entire school day or part of one in such classes and were then *mainstreamed* for other classes.

The guides are intended as stepping stones and idea-generators. They are malleable, modular, and adaptable: each can be used individually or in combination with one or more of the others. In using the guides, teachers and administrators will learn from their peers who have already successfully established content-ESL in their schools. For more theoretical and detailed information on the subject, readers are advised to consult the wealth of literature referred to throughout, or the bibliographies that are provided. They were assembled with experienced and novice, ESL and subject matter, elementary and secondary teachers in mind. You may, for example, be a high school physics teacher whose classes are suddenly filled with students that don't speak English very well. Or you may be an undergraduate preparing for a career as a special educator. Or you may be working as a math teacher in a Greek-English bilingual program. Whatever your point of view, what you want to know is: How can I help my students learn English without falling behind in their other subjects? The content-ESL approach was devised to answer that question. Here are some more specific questions.

When is a content-ESL program a good idea? **(see C-ESL Guide 1)**

What is sheltered content instruction? **(see C-ESL Guide 2)**

Where can you go for additional help? **(see C-ESL Guide 3)**

What should you read if you want to know more about this approach? **(see C-ESL Guide 4)**

What does a content-ESL program look like? **(see C-ESL Guide 5)**

How do you decide who should be in content-ESL? **(see C-ESL Guide 6)**

How will your curriculum change? **(see C-ESL Guide 7)**

How are you going to assess these students? **(see C-ESL Guide 8)**

How can you identify good content-ESL material? **(see C-ESL Guide 9)**

How can you adapt the material you're using now? **(see C-ESL Guide 10)**

What are you going to do if you can't speak the students' language? **(see C-ESL Guide 11)**

What can you do when you have a linguistically diverse group in one classroom? **(see C-ESL Guide 12)**

How can you make your program fit your school's and district's goals? **(see C-ESL Guide 13)**

How do you write a lesson plan for students with limited English proficiency? **(see C-ESL Guides 14, 15)**

The packet's aim is to provide ideas that work for designing, implementing, and sustaining such programs. For example, the lesson plans included (C-ESL Guide 15) can be used immediately; in the process, a teacher should gain a better understanding of what this approach is all about. They will show you how other educators have met the same challenges you face in your linguistically diverse classroom. It is our hope that the experience and wisdom teachers, students, and administrators shared with us will help make this effective method of instruction work for you. Here is the list of guides.

C-ESL Guides

1	**Content-ESL: General Background**
2	**Designing, Implementing, and Sustaining Content-ESL Programs**
3	**Additional Resources**
4	**Annotated Bibliography**
5	**Program Profiles**
6	**Sample Surveys, Checklists, Assessment Protocols, and Student Profiles**
7	**Guidelines: Developing Curricula**
8	**Guidelines: Evaluating Assessment**
9	**Guidelines: Selecting Materials**
10	**Guidelines: Adapting Material**
11	**Guidelines: Choosing Techniques**
12	**Guidelines: Learning Cooperatively**
13	**Guidelines: Teaching Thematically**
14	**Guidelines: Planning Lessons**
15	**Sample Lesson Plans**

C-ESL Guide No. 1

Content-ESL: General Background

C-ESL Guide No. 1

Content-ESL: General Background

Introduction

As we all know, a dramatic shift in the demographics of the school-age population has occurred in the last few years: many more language minority students now enter school with limited proficiency in English, and they must learn a new language while mastering new subject matter. To meet this challenge, districts are restructuring schools, reinventing curricula, and redirecting staff development toward linguistic and cultural awareness. On the classroom level, many are experimenting with content-ESL approaches that integrate instruction in language and content. In what follows, we take a look first at these new learners, then at language and language teaching, and finally at general trends in content instruction. The aim is to provide background information that you can use to plan and implement a program of integrated instruction.

1. The Learner

Learners carry cognitive, affective, social, and cultural predispositions with them into the classroom, and that is no less true of language minority than of language majority students. The ethnic diversity now apparent in our classrooms requires us to be more aware of these complexities than ever before. Let's take a closer look.

To begin with, children, regardless of their native languages, learn how to talk and therefore, at some level of consciousness, how to make language work. Even if they have not mastered the code associated with schooling when they start school, they have still learned how to convey their intentions to family, friends, and strangers in various social settings (Lindfors, 1987). Cultural differences can influence their formative linguistic development, however. For example, cultures differ in their discourse rules along such dimensions as who may talk when and for how long (Philips, 1970, 1983); there are also differences in pace, pauses, volume, and pitch (Tannen, 1986). Speaking softly is a sign of respect in some cultures but of passivity in others. Similarly, shifts in pitch are perceived as normal in some cultures and as excessive in others.

Pre-schoolers raised in print-oriented societies also acquire a sense of literacy that equips them for subsequent development (Heath, 1983; Hudelson, 1989). Once exposed to labels, stop signs, fast food logos, and the like, as well as to connected discourse in books and magazines, they gradually come to understand that print as well as speech conveys meaning. As early as the age of three, for example, they can distinguish writing from drawing and begin to hypothesize about how written language looks and works. Even before they know how to form actual letters, they create texts that carry meaning and "read" such texts to themselves and others. Even in such print-rich societies, however, some children rarely see anyone reading or writing, which can have an effect on their view of themselves as readers and writers (Hudelson, 1989).

Culturally induced predispositions can also determine a child's conception of school, and conflicts sometimes arise from a mismatch between culturally determined expectations and actual classroom practices. If a student expects teachers to be remote and authoritarian, for example, she may have a hard time accepting her teacher as a counselor or facilitator. Similarly, routines that stress rote memorization of a universally accepted corpus, as are common in many schools around the world, do not always prepare students well for the uncertainty associated with the problem-solving, inquiry, and inductive activities associated with U.S. education. On the other hand, many societies accord educators more respect than ours does, and many teachers find it easier to form a productive relationship with language minority students than with language majority students.

In short, unfamiliar approaches, roles, and language can lead to a dissonance that Krashen (1985) calls the "affective filter." Such factors as anxiety, poor motivation stemming from the learners' attitudes toward the

target language, and low self-confidence can keep them from using language input to promote their general development. Teachers should be particularly alert to that potential threat to the learning process.

Learning styles (idiosyncratic approaches people take in learning new subjects or tackling new problems) are also at least partly determined by culture (Oxford, 1990a, 1991; Oxford, Ehrman, and Lavine, 1991). These styles are configurations of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements that pervade all aspects of formal and informal learning, and more than twenty dimensions of learning style have been identified (Parry, 1984; Shipman and Shipman, 1985). These include preferences for global (cf. analytic) or visual (cf. auditory) presentation. In principle, learners seek learning situations compatible with their established preferences.

Dunn (1991) suggests that what appears to be underachievement among minority groups in U.S. schools is at least in part attributable to these culturally determined differences in style. She points to a variety of studies that pinpoint culturally related style differences. In one, mean scores on one learning style inventory for African-American and Chinese-American children differed significantly on 15 of the 22 possible style variables examined. As a group, Chinese Americans wanted, among other things, to work alone, while African Americans preferred working with peers. This is noteworthy because of the popularity of cooperative learning techniques. In another comparison, Dunn found that Chinese-American and Mexican-American children differed on only eight major style traits. Again, a preference among Chinese-American students for working alone emerged, while the Mexican-American students preferred group work. Compared with the Mexican-American students, the Chinese Americans preferred less tangible sensory intake, more variety, and morning work. In still other studies, Dunn noted widely discrepant differences in Greek Americans, members of various subcultures in the United States, and the general population.

There is evidence that learners do better in classes where the teaching matches their learning style preferences (Hatch, 1983), though at least one model, Kolb's (1984), seeks to accommodate four principal styles in a single lesson. These he identifies as learning through immediate experience, through reflection, through abstract conceptualization, and through action. While playing to the differing style preferences of students, the model also helps learners develop a facility in other styles they do not commonly use. In Kolb's view, the ideal is to adopt that style that best serves the learning task.

Still another aspect of diversity is language: the students' proficiencies in the native language and in English. Cummins (1981), for example, distinguishes the social language required for face-to-face communication (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills: BICS) from the academic language required for success in schools (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency: CALP). While social language is highly contextualized via situational cues, gestures, and other extralinguistic features from which the learner can infer meaning, academic language must often be deciphered from the features of a text that obeys conventions of formal discourse. While proficiency in social language can be acquired by interacting with speakers of the target language, watching television, going to the movies, and so on, proficiency in academic language develops more slowly because exposure is less frequent and the language is more complex and abstract. Thus, while fluent in the use of social language, students may lack the academic language proficiency necessary for effective participation in the classroom.

Reading and writing tasks required in the classroom draw increasingly on academic language proficiency as students advance through the school system. Some researchers maintain that native language literacy can have a facilitating effect in the performance of these cognitively demanding tasks, though they disagree on just how much transfer of skills between languages is possible. According to Cummins (1991), the learner must reach critical thresholds in first language reading skills and in second language proficiency for such transfer to occur. Those critical thresholds are still poorly defined, however.

One final variable, motivation, should also be examined. According to Krashen (1985) and others, a lack of motivation can activate the "affective filter" (Krashen, 1985) and thus interfere with language acquisition. Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguish two types of motivation relevant to language acquisition, integrative

and instrumental. A learner who is integratively motivated wants to emulate the speakers of the language and integrate socially. Learners who are instrumentally motivated want to use the language to accomplish goals in the short term (e.g., to pass a qualifying examination) or long term (e.g., to enhance future career opportunities). While an instrumental motivation is not necessarily associated with positive attitudes toward the language, its speakers, and their culture, it can have a facilitating effect on language acquisition if learners perceive the course content and instructional goals to be consistent with their personal goals.

2. *Language and Language Teaching*

Over the last 30 years, there has been a gradual shift in language classrooms. In the 1960s, the objects of study --what was taught--were the target language system and four major skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Today, by contrast, that system is taught indirectly. Instead of a focus on the language per se, there is a focus on use of the language to learn other things. Instead of attending to grammar and phonology, students attend to messages and content. Several research strands have contributed to this shift.

In the 1960s, the prevailing approach was the Audiolingual Method (ALM). Its underlying theory of language was structuralism, and its underlying theory of learning was behavioral psychology. Under these theories, the learner's brain (cf. mind) was considered an empty vessel that had to be filled through limited exposure and controlled practice. In ALM, therefore, classtime was devoted primarily to developing skills by means of habit formation drills in which students practiced those language "patterns" that had been isolated by the structuralists.

In 1965, Chomsky proposed a different view: in contrast to the behaviorists and their stimulus-response model, he argued that a biological mechanism governs the process of language acquisition and that the learning of language is different from the learning other things, a distinctly mentalistic concept. Since, in his view, stimulus-response was inadequate to account for a child's ability to generate unheard utterances, Chomsky explained such utterances as the natural outcome of a process in which linguistic input triggers the child's innate predisposition to experiment with the forms of a language and discover its structure. The result is an abstract mental representation of the grammar of the language, and Chomsky's research program has as its aim the discovery of those rules that characterize that grammar. Since they are highly abstract, Chomsky and his disciples do not claim that those rules possess "psychological reality" or that they can be transformed easily into pedagogically useful material.

Although Chomsky's theories were much debated, they did not immediately serve as the basis for a new approach to the teaching of language. But the time was ripe for a paradigmatic shift away from behaviorism, though the direction it would take was determined more by psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic research than linguistic theory.

One theory to emerge was Krashen's Monitor Theory (Krashen, 1985), which is essentially a series of untested "hypotheses" and metaphors that collectively promote a view of how proficiency in a second language is optimally achieved. There are five principal hypotheses. One has to do with the "affective filter" discussed above. Another claims that speakers develop second language proficiency in two distinct ways: they "acquire" language in a naturalistic way, unconsciously and without formal instruction, or they "learn" language through formal instruction, with attention given to the rules of grammar and the detection and correction of errors. The linguistic knowledge developed in these two ways plays two different roles in communication. While the acquired system is responsible for the initiation of utterances, the rules of the learned system serve only to monitor or edit utterances before, during, or after production (a third hypothesis). Moreover, for the monitor to operate, the speaker must have enough time, attend to the form of the language (as opposed to the meaning), and know the appropriate rule.

Krashen sees acquisition as the more important of the two means of developing language. People acquire

language best by understanding natural language input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence (a fourth hypothesis). If there are enough clues in the linguistic and extralinguistic context, learners can then access the meaning without being hindered by unfamiliar grammar or vocabulary. Thus, they build competence incrementally by processing the input and using newly acquired language for meaningful communication, but they must be given sufficient time to do so via "comprehensible input." Teachers may, for example, have to grant beginners a silent period during which they merely absorb the sound of the language and participate in comprehension activities. Similarly, errors are seen as inevitable and temporary phenomena that will gradually disappear in a predictable and altogether natural order (a fifth hypothesis). They occur as the learner experiments with new features that have not yet been integrated into the emerging system.

Monitor Theory has been criticized by researchers on various grounds (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; McLaughlin, 1990; Schmidt, 1990; Swain, 1985). One objection which has obvious pedagogical implications is that, while comprehensible input is a necessary condition for second language acquisition, input alone is insufficient if native-speaker levels of grammatical accuracy are to be achieved.

Language input (in the form of teacher talk, listening exercises, reading passages, and language heard and read every day outside class) gives learners the raw material they need to begin producing language on their own. Language output--having to produce the language--enables learners to test hypotheses about the rules of the language. Moreover, the effort to produce comprehensible utterances inevitably forces learners to pay attention to the grammatical system of the language in order to convey their meaning.

Thus learners will benefit from a balance between input and output. In the presentation stage of a lesson, appropriately tuned input gives learners just the bits of language that they are ready to acquire. In the practice stage, learner output focuses on features of language recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. In the application phase of a lesson, the learners' main purpose is to complete some kind of communicative task. They are encouraged to call on all their language resources and to develop strategies for communication which might not emerge under more controlled conditions.

Despite theoretical and pedagogical objections to his hypotheses, Krashen and his followers have had considerable success with a compatible method of language teaching called the Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). This method, intended primarily for beginners, is designed to develop social language (BICS), oral and written, rather than academic language (CALP). Comprehension is central, since it is through comprehension in meaningful situations that the learner acquires competence. This emphasis leads eventually to vocabulary development (and a corresponding de-emphasis where explicit grammar teaching is concerned) and learning tasks in which language development is a by-product rather than a goal in and of itself. While it has been widely adopted and has spurred materials development, the Natural Approach has shortcomings. Since it is intended to support early development of social language skills, the lack of corrective feedback may lead to error fossilization at low levels of proficiency (Higgs and Clifford, 1982). Similarly, Swain (1985) suggests that production plays a greater role in achieving proficiency, especially in academic language, than is acknowledged in this approach.

Sociolinguistic research has also had consequences for the teaching and learning of languages. Whereas psycholinguistic studies focus on the learner, sociolinguistic studies situate the process in a sociocultural context. As early as the 1950s, linguists (e.g., Firth, 1957) began stressing communication--at a time when prevailing approaches still emphasized formal competence. Subsequently, Hymes (1964) called for the study of speech in its social setting and later coined the term "communicative competence" (1972). In short, language users need to know more than phonology, grammar, and vocabulary: they must be sensitive to such social aspects as the relationship between speaker and hearer (or writer and reader), the setting, the topic, and the like. Students must learn how to begin, continue, and end a communication so that it is all of a piece. Comprehension of a communication shifts in relation to the emerging whole, and students must be able to respond appropriately.

Most recently, our understanding of language has been enriched by an interest in varieties of language used by

groups of people sharing an occupational orientation (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens, 1964)--for example, medicine (Maher, 1986), science and technology (Trimble, 1985), and teaching (Cazden, 1988; Tharp and Gallimore, 1991). Some researchers have even isolated those devices used to structure written discourse (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Johns, 1980) or to manage conversations (Bateson, 1972; Tannen, 1984). Others have looked at functions such as complaining (Candlin, Coleman, and Burton, 1983), apologizing (Olshtain and Cohen, 1983), and paying compliments (Wolfson, 1983). As course designers and teachers have drifted away from lockstep habit formation, they have adopted more communicative approaches. Today, many agree that activities in the classroom should involve real communication and that language should be used to carry out meaningful tasks. Many feel that students can start communicating at the outset by using meager target language and rich native language resources at their disposal to negotiate meaning.

One noteworthy trend is English for specific purposes (ESP) in tertiary and adult education. Recognizing that older learners usually have well defined reasons for studying a second language, planners increasingly build courses around an assessment of the uses to which the learners will ultimately put the language--a needs analysis (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Courses whose content is restricted to the forms and functions of language that are intrinsic to the target situation are not only more efficient but also more motivating because of their obvious relevance to the learners' needs.

In some ESP courses, learners already possess the content knowledge required for the target situation and need only learn to deal with the content through the medium of a new language. In others, however, the learners are faced with both an unfamiliar language and an unfamiliar subject matter. Since that situation is similar to the one faced by language minority children in U.S. schools, ESP is a good source of information about curriculum and materials development for these learners, though considerable care must be taken to ensure that the topics, tasks, and tokens are entirely age appropriate. Mohan (1986), for example, has explored ways to organize language learning so that it fits the communication needs of learners and has written that "to look at the communicative environment of learners in the school, we must ask what is the relationship between language classes and content classes" (p. 7). His view is also that "it is absurd to ignore the role of content in the language class, just as it is absurd to ignore the role of language as a medium of learning in the content class" (p. iv). Because standard-setting projects in the disciplines now explicitly recognize the importance of oral and written discourse (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1990, 1991; National Committee on Science Education Standards and Assessment, 1993), there is a growing need for language teachers to teach subject matter and for content teachers to accommodate second language learners in linguistically sensitive ways (Garcia, 1991; Hamayan & Perlman, 1990; Rosebery, Warren, and Conant, 1992; Secada, 1989; Short, 1991).

Communication about content also requires higher order thinking skills. As Mohan points out, the goal for language teachers and content teachers alike is to promote "understandable communication, cumulative language learning, and the development of academic thinking skills" (1986, p. iv). Frequently, ESL teachers delay instruction in cognitive skills until their students reach higher levels of language proficiency (Short, 1991). Thus, students of limited English proficiency are sometimes placed in mainstream classes before they have developed the cognitive skills needed to process content. Instead of delaying their progress (presumably on the assumption that second language students are unequal to a cognitive challenge or that cognitive development will sort itself out), training in higher order thinking skills such as inference, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and hypothesis should be integrated into the curriculum (Palinscar and Brown, 1988; Perkins, 1987; Resnick, 1987). To that end, educators have devised techniques for developing thinking skills in the context of oral discussion (Goldenberg, 1991), reading (Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988), and writing (Gregg and Steinberg, 1980).

Similarly, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) have argued for the direct teaching of language learning strategies, "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 1). Many of these strategies entail the use of the higher order thinking skills, particularly metacognitive strategies that regulate the process (e.g., planning, monitoring, or evaluating a learning or problem-solving activity) and cognitive strategies that require analysis, transformation, or synthesis (e.g., guessing meaning from context or relating new information to previously

learned concepts). Guides for the direct teaching of these strategies are now widely available (Chamot and O'Malley, 1993; Oxford, 1990b; Rubin and Thompson, 1982).

3. General Trends in Teaching

Arguments for integrating language and content instruction come not only from disciplines related to the learning and teaching of languages, but also from allied areas. During the past three decades, for example, the teaching of reading and writing have undergone radical change in response to new theories about the nature of reading and writing and in recognition of the diversity of texts and tasks that confront students in and out of school. As a result, two important changes--a shift from a product to a process orientation and an inventory of the actual reading and writing demands in various academic areas (science, mathematics, and social studies)--have occurred. Instructional efforts such as "reading in the content areas" and "writing across the curriculum" are now widely endorsed and widely practiced.

Reading. Traditionally, reading theory saw reading as a bottom-up process: readers derived meaning from text in a linear, additive fashion (Carver, 1977-78; Gough, 1972; LaBerge and Samuels, 1974). While basic decoding and encoding skills, such as are on display in a bottom-up strategy, may transfer across languages (Hakuta and Cancino, 1980), the extent of transfer is still an open question. Differences in languages and cultural backgrounds can affect text processing and interpretation. For this and other reasons, reading is now seen as a meaning-constructing process that moves from the top down and calls on bottom-up processes only when alternative strategies are blocked (Goodman, 1986; Smith, 1988); it is also profoundly interactive, as students derive or construct meaning from the interaction of text and experience. Today's focus, therefore, is comprehension, the construction of new ideas out of existing ones, and the use of prior knowledge to support and create new knowledge. In some models (Rummelhart and Ortony, 1977; Samuels, 1977; Stanovich, 1980), "higher order" or interpretive taxonomic levels of processing (Bloom et al., 1956) are held to influence processing at lower stages, thus obliterating (or constraining the need for) primitive decoding. When less experienced readers interact with and interpret text in a second language, however, instruction in text variety and opportunities to discuss and socially construct meaning (Cazden, 1990; McDermott, 1977) are also needed. Familiarity with vocabulary, syntax, and discourse features is critical for achievement in this regard.

Writing. On one level, writing is increasingly viewed as a social process (Hawkins, 1976), with writers interacting with and learning from each other as they develop texts for real audiences. These interactions may involve discussion, reading, and pre-writing, which lead to the development of drafts and revisions before a final draft is edited and published. In the process, students are understood to be at work learning from the process itself, and a trend called "writing to learn" has spun off writing across the curriculum. If students are to write like scientists, mathematicians, or historians, they must master discipline-specific discourses (Goodman, 1986). They must, in other words, practice expository and persuasive writing. As a result, essay questions in mathematics and such devices as journals and reading logs in social studies and science have become commonplace. ESL teachers have therefore expanded the types of writing assignments they make and championed the use of graphic organizers and frames in the writing process.

On another level, writing is now more deeply appreciated as a cognitive process, and the relationship between the students' first and second languages and its effect on cognition has been explored by many researchers. In other words, metalinguistic knowledge of some language other than English, rather than inhibiting literacy development in English, may actually enhance it. If that is the case, then LEP students who have received continuous age-appropriate instruction in another language are likely to find the acquisition of English literacy skills easier than those who have not. If they are going to manage texts in an academically sophisticated way, however, they must be taught how to decipher and write about and otherwise dominate them and, in the process, will acquire the literacy skills needed for academic success (Mohan, 1986). In sum, the development of writing abilities in a second language among students in academic programs is a complex dynamic.

Similarly, the writing process itself is now understood as more than a mysterious and idiosyncratic series of activities that precede the emergence of a product. For these and other reasons, writing now plays a deeper and more critical role in learning generally.

Mathematics. The days when it was assumed that the study of math required little attention to language are behind us. Math educators and researchers today recognize that an activity-specific register is associated with problem-solving in math (Cuevas, 1984; Halliday, 1978; Mestre, 1984) and that math proficiency includes a mastery of the discourse of mathematics as well as a grasp of mathematical concepts. While the abilities of non-native students are equal to the task of understanding mathematical concepts and processes in their native languages, these students have trouble when teachers do not modify their language to match the students' levels of proficiency. Students often have trouble, for example, articulating their comprehension of mathematical concepts and processes (Dawe, 1983; Kessler, 1986). Linguistic complexities associated with the technical language of mathematics and constraints on the expressive capacities of students thus impinge on their performance and make it difficult for school personnel to get a precise fix on their true capabilities. For these and other reasons, math teachers are increasingly sensitive to the communicative limitations of language minority students in English and, as indicated above, have begun to require considerably more instructional conversation around math problems, more group work, and more expository writing.

Social Studies. Although ESL and foreign language teachers have always had cultural objectives, even in non-content-based courses, social studies educators have been slow to address issues of language. Even when impelled to confront these issues (e.g., the National Council for the Social Studies, 1976), they rarely looked deeply at the problems of language minority students in social studies classes. Although research has been conducted on reading demands in social studies--examining textbooks and measuring student comprehension in relation to prose type (e.g., expository), coherence, visual organization, headings, and illustrations (Beck, 1989; Brophy, 1991; Crismore, 1985), the focus was their effects on native English speakers. While a global perspective has often been described as critical in the building of self-esteem among language minority students and in their acclimatization, few studies have been carried out along this critical interface. Only recently has the attention of social studies educators been drawn to the critical needs of this population (Short, 1994). These facts are particularly distressing because, of the three or four subject matters most often integrated into ESL classes, social studies is probably the most dependent on prior knowledge of a cultural nature and on language.

Science. Researchers have recently examined instructional materials in science to discover how they help or hinder teaching and learning. In general, published materials for teaching science have been faulted for their failure to take the reader into account (Anderson, 1987; Armbruster, 1991; Meyer, 1991), their failure to engage students cognitively, and their implicitly constricted view of science. Thus, they often confirm students' assumptions that science is essentially an inventory of established facts (Alvermann and Hinchman, 1991; Holliday, 1991; Padak and Davidson, 1991; Rosebery et al., 1990). Meyer (1991) and similar studies show that, without strategies for accessing the content of science textbooks, students will overlook key ideas and their interrelationships (Armbruster, 1991; Harrison, 1991; Holliday, 1991; Padak & Davidson, 1991). Thus, there is a deeply felt and universally acknowledged need for more challenging and more engaging material in science and, beyond that, a need for such material tailored to the talents and aspirations of content-ESL students.

To become scientifically literate, students must be acculturated into ways of making sense of what they see, say, read, and hear in science activities (Rosebery et al., 1990). Acculturation may entail a long and intimate apprenticeship in a community that engages in scientific sense-making (Bakhtin, 1981). For language minority students, this apprenticeship is often complicated by cultural and linguistic differences, for cross-linguistic discourses, by definition, conflict in their underlying assumptions and values, their ways of making sense, their viewpoints, and the objects and concepts with which they concern themselves (Gee, 1989).

Doing science is now often an important component of learning science, as students study scientific ways of thinking and talking and as investigation is placed at the center of the enterprise (Rosebery et al., 1990; Warren

et al., 1989). Investigative, inquiry, or discovery approaches require students to pose questions, write hypotheses, plan research, collect data, and analyze data to reach conclusions. In these approaches, students become active problem solvers rather than merely passive observers of a teacher's demonstrations or readers of text. By the same token, content-ESL courses which incorporate science content increasingly incorporate this emphasis on inquiry and discovery.

4. Conclusion

Content-ESL instruction is a bold experiment in language minority education. It takes as its starting point the need to help LEP students survive and thrive in U.S. public schools by putting them into English-medium classes as soon as possible. But it does not endorse mere sink-or-swim survival. Rather, content-ESL favors material that is calibrated to the linguistic needs of students, classes that are sensitive to the previously acquired knowledge they bring to the process, recourse to their native language when necessary, activities that promote active learning, and assessment that accurately measures their levels of accomplishment. Like language acquisition itself, content-ESL is an intricate interweaving--of language and subject matter, of learning theory and learning strategies, of conventional practice and innovation.

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C-ESL Guide No. 2

Designing, Implementing, and Sustaining Content-ESL Programs

C-ESL Guide No. 2

Designing, Implementing, and Sustaining Content-ESL Programs

The major factors involved in designing, implementing, and sustaining content-ESL programs may be summarized under eight general headings. See C-ESL Guide No. 1 for background information on content-ESL.

1. Meeting the Mandates

Federal law requires that state and local education agencies take whatever action is necessary to overcome the language barrier that faces large numbers of language minority students. Many states have passed additional legislation or developed specific policies regarding English as a second language (ESL) and bilingual instruction. Further, local school districts may define policies for their schools to accommodate the needs of their language minority students. These federal, state, and local mandates touch on such issues as the following:

- Types of services required for language minority students
- Guidelines for program implementation
- Procedures for certifying teachers to work with language minority students
- Procedures for obtaining funding

2. Assessing the Students' Needs

- Home language surveys and other identification procedures

  Surveys, interviews, and other procedures help to identify language minority students who may need special language support as part of their schooling. [See C-ESL Guide No. 6 for a sample survey form.] Data such as the following may be requested:

  - Country of origin of parents and school-age children
  - Length of residence in U.S. of school-age children
  - Highest grade completed by parents
  - Language(s) spoken in the home
  - Parents' proficiency in English
  - Literacy of parents in native language and in English
  - Socioeconomic data

- Student profiles

  Once language minority students have been identified, further information is required to help determine their educational needs, including special English instruction. [See C-ESL Guide No. 6 for a sample student profile form.] Prior schooling experience and English language proficiency are especially important.

  - Grade-by-grade educational history, showing in what year and in what country each grade was completed
  - School transcripts
  - Standardized test scores in English and in other content areas
  - Scores and other results of in-take test battery

- In-take test battery

  The in-take test battery completes the student profile. It provides an objective basis for placing the student at the appropriate level of the ESL program (if special language support is needed). It also helps to determine the student's content knowledge for placement in mainstream courses.

  - Standardized test of English proficiency [See C-ESL Guide No. 8 for a list of frequently used tests.]
  - Tests of reading and math skills administered in the native language [La Prueba Riverside and the Spanish Assessment of Basic Education (SABE) are standardized reading and math skills tests for Spanish speakers. Some school districts develop their own locally normed tests for this purpose.]

  Some school districts develop and administer more informal tests, especially to assess aspects of English proficiency which are often not covered in standardized tests.

  - Listening comprehension (e.g., ability to understand and carry out spoken commands)
  - Oral production (e.g., answering simple questions, making brief statements about pictures or objects in the examination room)
  - Written expression (e.g., a short composition on a familiar topic, in English and/or the native language)

3. Choosing the Program Design

A crucial factor to consider in program design is the amount and kind of special language support to be provided to the students. [See C-ESL Guide No. 5 for short profiles of several programs at the elementary, middle, and high school levels.] Programs usually feature a combination of two or more of the following options:

- Native language support

  Content instruction may be provided through the native language. In some programs, it is then reinforced through Engliish-medium instruction. In mainstream courses, the students' native language(s) may also be used by teachers, aides, and students as needed to facilitate instruction.

- English as a second language (often content based)

  Students with low English proficiency spend most of the school day learning English. More proficient students can spend a greater part of the day in mainstream classes.

- Sheltered content instruction

  A content course (which also has language learning objectives) is taught either by an ESL teacher or a regular content teacher to students whose English is still too limited for mainstream classes.

- Adjunct instruction

  A mainstream course and an ESL course are linked. The mainstream course, taught by a regular content teacher, enrolls both native and non-native speakers of English. The ESL course, taught by an ESL teacher, provides needed language support to the non-native speakers.

- Language-sensitive content instruction

  A mainstream course is taught by a regular content teacher to a class of both native and non-native English speakers. Instruction is adjusted to accommodate the needs of the non-native speakers.

4. Developing the Curriculum

Content-ESL courses need curricula that help students to acquire the language, thinking, and study skills needed for mainstream content courses. Such curricula may be developed in several ways. [See C-ESL Guide No. 7 for guidelines on curriculum development.]

- Theme-based (= content-based) ESL instruction
  Primary emphasis is on language skills, but instructional units feature interdisciplinary themes such as the community, types of shelter, ecology, and measurement.

- Specially designed content course
  An original curriculum is developed for a content course tailored to meet the needs of language minority students. Subject matter such as literature, civics, health, or career guidance would be suitable for this treatment.

- Adapted mainstream content course
  The existing curriculum for a mainstream course is adapted or even combined with other mainstream courses, making the content more accessible to non-native English speakers. Social studies and science courses are frequently adapted.

5. Selecting Instructional Approaches and Activities

Content-ESL teaching favors techniques and activities that encourage communication in the classroom and use of academic language in the ways required by content courses. Common practices include:

- Cooperative learning activities
  Students work together in small, heterogeneous groups on a single task within a given time limit. As they negotiate a jointly constructed outcome, they exchange knowledge and experiences and make their own connections with the content and language.

- Whole language
  Language is used in natural ways for clearly defined purposes, often in activities which feature social interaction. Lessons begin with whole texts (as opposed to practicing with isolated rules or lists of words). Instruction closely integrates listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

- Language experience approach
  Drawing on experiences they have had and language they have learned both inside and outside the classroom, students dictate stories to their teacher. The teacher may then use transcripts of these stories as texts for reading instruction, thus guiding the students to make connections between oral and written language. The approach may also be adapted for writing instruction.

- Interdisciplinary learning
  An instructional unit, ranging in length from a few class periods to a year-long course, is built on a theme which may be approached from two or more disciplinary perspectives. Students are led to unite content and language learning in meaningful contexts and to develop the kinds of thinking skills needed for various disciplines.

See C-ESL Guides No. 9 for guidelines for selecting materials, No. 10 for adapting materials, No. 11 for techniques of presentation, No. 12 for cooperative learning and small group work, No. 13 for developing a thematic unit, No. 14 for creating lesson plans, and No. 15 for sample lesson plans.

6. Assessing Student Progress

States and local districts often mandate formal standardized tests to determine when students are ready to progress to higher levels of the ESL program and when they are ready to enter mainstream courses. However, for a more fully rounded picture of students' knowledge and abilities, many programs have begun using alternative forms of assessment in addition to conventional standardized tests.

Alternative assessment is an ongoing process, with measures being used frequently enough to show students' growth in language ability and content knowledge. Assessment tasks vary in form and are more authentic than most standardized tests, since they reflect activities that are typical of classroom and real-life settings.

See C-ESL Guide No. 8 for a list of commonly used standardized tests and for guidelines on alternative forms of assessment.

- Performance assessment

  Students show their achievement of specific behaviors (e.g., retelling a story) or their ability to produce given products (e.g., a written report). Raters' judgments of student performance are based on predetermined criteria clearly understood by the students.

- Portfolios

  A student's portfolio contains a variety of records and products which portray development of language ability and/or content knowledge over a period of time. Products of performance assessment may be included, as well as scores from tests. Also included are student self-evaluations, and often students select some of the materials to be added to their portfolios. Contents are evaluated according to specific criteria made known to the students in advance.

7. Providing for Staff Development

One of the national education goals promoted in *Goals 2000: Educate America* is teacher education. This goal advocates improvement of teachers' knowledge and skills as part of their continued professional development. In-service training must take into account the fact that the majority of practicing teachers have not been trained to deal with the linguistic and cultural diversity of today's classrooms. Among the topics which could be treated by in-service training are:

- Information about the cultures of students in the school, to promote better cross-cultural understanding and validate students' cultural identities
- Information about culturally determined differences in expectations about the role of education, the nature of schooling, and approaches to learning
- Information about how children learn a second language, in particular the cognitively demanding forms of a language as it is used in school
- Information about how learning of content is affected when mediated through a second language
- Information about techniques for providing linguistic and cognitive support for students whose English proficiency is still limited

See C-ESL Guide No. 3 for professional organizations that can serve as resources for staff development.

8. *Involving Parents and the Community*

Increased family involvement is targeted as another of the education goals created by *Goals 2000* legislation. Schools must take the initiative to establish relationships with parents and the larger community. Parents, although concerned about their children's education, may not know how to help them succeed in school. Parents of language minority children, in particular, often have limited English proficiency and may have limited formal education, and are therefore hesitant to approach school personnel. Businesses and service organizations in the community may not be aware of the roles they could play in supporting and enhancing the efforts of school personnel.

The following suggestions for increasing parental involvement are adapted from The ERIC Review 1, 3 (p. 6), September 1991.

- Parents' time constraints

  - Give parents blanket permission to vist the school at all times--to visit the classroom, use the library, or talk to the teachers or administrators.
  - Provide before-school child care so that working parents can see teachers before going to work.
  - Conduct evening meetings, with child care, so that parents can attend.
  - Announce meetings long enough in advance to allow parents to arrange to attend.
  - Do not make last-minute school cancellations.

- Parents' home language

  - Establish bilingual hotlines for parents.
  - Send bilingual messages to parents not only on routine notices, but also on things parents can do at home to help educate their children.
  - Print all signs in the school in the languages spoken by school families.

Checklist for Administrators

The preceding discussion is an overview of the major factors to consider in designing, implementing, and sustaining a content-ESL program. Administrators can use the list below to track the development of their own programs.

1. Meeting the Mandates

   ___ Determine types of services required for language minority students
   ___ Study guidelines for program implementation
   ___ Verify certification of teachers who will staff the program
   ___ Investigate procedures for obtaining funding

2. Assessing the Students' Needs

   ___ Identify language minority students in possible need of special language support
   ___ Collect data for student profiles
   ___ Conduct in-take test battery
   ___ Evaluate profiles and test results to determine student placements

3. Choosing the Program Design

Based on the needs of the student population, determine the configuration of services to be offered.

___ Content instruction with native language as medium
___ Bilingual aides to supplement mainstream instruction
___ Courses in English as a second language, at appropriate proficiency levels
___ Sheltered content instruction
___ Adjunct courses: paired content and ESL courses
___ Mainstream content courses with accommodation for non-native English speakers

4. Developing the Curriculum

Set up interdisciplinary teams (ESL and content teachers) to outline curricula for courses such as the following:

___ Theme-based ESL instruction
___ Specially designed content courses
___ Adapted mainstream content courses

5. Selecting Instructional Approaches and Activities

Set up interdisciplinary teams to select materials and serve as resource persons for the following instructional approaches, and for others as required:

___ Cooperative learning
___ Whole language
___ Language experience
___ Interdisciplinary learning

6. Assessing Student Progress

___ Set up an interdisciplinary team (including at least one ESL teacher) to oversee student assessment
___ Determine the role to be played by standardized testing in assessment of student progress
___ Promote the use of multiple assessments, formal and informal, in courses enrolling non-native speakers of English
___ Establish guidelines for selecting and evaluating items to be included in students' portfolios

7. Providing for Staff Development

___ Schedule regular planning time in which members of cross-disciplinary teams can serve as resources for each other
___ Set up a plan for peer observation and coaching
___ Arrange workshops in which content teachers outline basic concepts of their fields and point out areas where non-native English speakers typically have difficulty
___ Arrange workshops in which ESL teachers present background information and practical advice on meeting the language needs of non-native English speakers
___ Bring in expert speakers from the school district, the local university, resource centers, or the appropriate professional organizations
___ Keep staff informed of courses and professional meetings occurring elsewhere
___ Arrange for teacher representatives to visit successful programs in other institutions

8. Involving Parents and the Community

___ Encourage parents to arrange school visits at any time they feel necessary
___ Determine the most convenient times for parents to come to meetings
___ Establish a regular channel of communciation with parents (e.g., a newsletter)
___ Provide bilingual support as needed for oral and written communication with parents

C-ESL Guide No. 3

Additional Resources

C-ESL Guide No. 3

Additional Resources

I. As a starting point, teachers should consult the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education:

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE)
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
Toll Free: (800) 321-NCBE
Telephone: (202) 467-0867
Fax: (202) 429-9766

Operating since 1977, NCBE is funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) to provide practitioners with information on the education of limited English proficient (LEP) students. NCBE compiles information on materials, programs, research, and other resources that can help educators deal with the complex and changing educational needs of LEP students.

NCBE has a Computerized Information System (CIS). Contact NCBE for a user manual.
The modem lines for the NCBE CIS are:
National: (800) 752-1860 From Washington, DC area: (202) 467-0873 or (202) 467-0874
User ID: guest

II. State Education Agencies

State Education Agencies have a legislative mandate to collect statewide data regarding the total number of students and limited English proficient students enrolled in public and private schools. States are also required to collect data on the methods used to determine limited English proficiency; the educational condition of limited English proficient students in subject areas such as math, science, reading, and other areas; test scores; and where available, grade retention rates and student dropout rates. States also collect information on the number of limited English proficient students enrolled in programs.

SEAs can also provide the following optional services: coordinating or supervising technical assistance; planning and developing educational programs, such as those assisted under the Bilingual Education Act; training SEA and local education agency staff to carry out the purposes of programs of bilingual education; developing and administering assessment instruments; reviewing and evaluating bilingual education programs; and other similar activities.

Alabama Department of Education
ESL Education, Chapter I
5348 Gordon Persons Building
50 North Ripley Street - Rm. 5348
Montgomery, AL 36130-3901

Alaska Department of Education
Bilingual Education Program
801 West 10th Street, Suite 200
Juneau, AK 99801-1894

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Office
1535 West Jefferson
Phoenix, AZ 85007

Arkansas State Department of Education
Education Building, R-405-B
4 Capitol Mall
Little Rock, AR 72201

California State Department of Education
Bilingual Education Office
721 Capitol Mall
P.O. Box 944272
Sacramento, CA 94244

Colorado Department of Education
Office of Federal and State
Program Services
Special Projects Unit
201 East Colfax
Denver, CO 80203

Connecticut State Department of Education
Office of Urban & Priority Schools
Bilingual Education
165 Capitol Avenue
Hartford, CT 06145

Delaware Department of Public Instruction
P.O. Box 1402
Dover, DE 19903

D.C. Public Schools
Browne Administration Unit
Bilingual Education
26th Street & Benning Road., N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20002

Florida State Department of Education
Office of Multicultural Studen
Language Education
Florida Education Center, Suite 544
Tallahassee, FL 32399

Georgia State Board of Education
1958 Twin Towers East
Atlanta, GA 30334-5040

Hawaii State Department of Education
General Education Branch
Languages Section
189 Lunalilo Home Road, Second Floor
Honolulu, HI 96825

Idaho State Department of Education
650 West State Street
Boise, ID 83720

Illinois State Board of Education
State of Illinois Center
Bilingual Education Department
100 West Randolph, Suite 14-300
Chicago, IL 60601

Indiana Department of Public Instruction
Division of Language
Minority/Migrant Program - Room 229
State House
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Iowa Department of Education
Grimes State Office Building
Des Moines, IA 50319

Kansas State Department of Education
120 East 10th Street
Topeka, KS 66612

Kentucky Department of Education
Bureau of Instruction
Capital Plaza Tower
Frankfort, KY 40601

Lousiana State Department of Education
Foreign Languages and Bilingual
Education Section
P.O. Box 94064
Baton Rouge, LA 70804

Maine Department of Education and Cultural
Services
State House Station #23
Augusta, ME 04333

Maryland State Department of Education
Division of Instruction
200 West Baltimore Street
Baltimore, MD 21201

Massachusetts Department of Education
Instruction and Curriculum Cluster
350 Main Street
Malden, MA 02148-5023

Michigan Department of Education
Bilingual Education Office
P.O. Box 30008
Lansing, MI 48909

Minnesota Department of Education
Capitol Square Building
550 Cedar Street
St. Paul, MN 55101

Mississippi State Department of Education
P.O. Box 771
Jackson, MS 39205

Missouri State Department of Education
Department of Elementary and Secondary Grades
P.O. Box 480
Jefferson City, Missouri 65102

Montana Office of Public Instruction
State Capitol
Helena, MT 59620

Nebraska State Department of Education
301 Centennial Mall
P.O. Box 94987
Lincoln, NE 68509

Nevada Department of Education
400 West King Street
Capitol Complex
Carson City, NV 89710

New Hampshire State Department of Education
101 Pleasant Street
Concord, NH 03301

New Jersey Department of Education
Bureau of Bilingual Education
CN 400
225 West State Street
Trenton, NJ 08625-0500

New Mexico Department of Education
Instructional Services Division
Education Building
Santa Fe, NM 87501

New York State Education Department
Field Services
55 Hanson Place, Suite 445
Brooklyn, New York 11217

North Carolina Department of Public Instruction
Second Language/High School Team
301 North Wilmington Street
Education Building - Room 6182
Raleigh, NC 27603-2825

North Dakota Department of Public Instruction
State Capitol Building - 9th Floor
Bismark, ND 58505

Ohio Department of Education
106 North High Street
Second Floor - Room 218
Columbus, OH 43266

Oklahoma State Department of Education
Bilingual Education and National Origin Section
2500 North Lincoln Boulevard
Oklahoma City, OK 73105

Oregon Department of Education
Division of General Education
700 Pringle Parkway SE
Salem, OR 97310

Pennsylvania Department of Education
Bureau of Curriculum Instruction
333 Market Street
Harrisburg, PA 17126

Rhode Island Department of
Elementary and Secondary
Education - Room 305
22 Hayes Street
Roger Williams Building
Providence, RI 02908

South Carolina Department of Education
1429 Senate Street
Rutledge Building - Room 513
Columbia, SC 29201

South Dakota Department of Education
Cultural Affairs
Division of Elementary and
Secondary Education
700 Governors Drive
Pierre, SD 57501

Tennessee Department of Education
Curriculum and Instruction
8th Floor - Gateway Plaza
710 James Robertson Parkway
Nashville, TN 37243-0309

Texas Education Agency
Division of Bilingual Education and
Special Language Instruction
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, Texas 78701

Utah State Office of Education
250 East 500 South
Salt Lake City, UT 84111

Vermont Department of Education
Rural Education Center
500 Dorset Street
South Burlington, VT 05401

Virginia Department of Education
P.O. Box 60
Richmond, VA 23216

Washington State Department of
Public Instruction
Support Services Section
Old Capitol Building/FG-11
Olympia, WA 98504

West Virginia State Department of Education
Second Language Learning
Building 6 - Capitol Complex
Room 330
Charleston, WV 25305

Wisconsin Department of
Public Instruction
Instructional Services
P. O. Box 7841
125 South Webster Street
Madison, WI 53707

Wyoming Department of Education
General Program Unit
Hathaway Building
Cheyenne, WY 82002

American Samoa Department of Education
P.O. Box 2272
Pago Pago, American Samoa 96799

Guam Department of Education
P.O. Box DE
Agana, Guam 96910

Puerto Rico Department of Education
P.O. Box 759, RM. 903
Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00919

Virgin Islands Department of Education
21, 22, 23 Hospital Street
Christianstead
St. Croix, VI 00820

Northern Marianas Department of Education
Lower Base
Saipan, C.M. 96950

Republic of Palau/TTPI
Bureau of Education
P.O. Box 189
Koror, Palau, TT 96940

III. *Multifunctional Resource Centers (MRCs)*

There are 16 Multifunctional Resource Centers located around the United States. They are institutions funded by the U.S. Department of Education that are charged with helping educators identify, develop, and/or put into practice new teaching strategies and curricular ideas. Every three years the MRCs are refunded and may change locations and directors. Below is the current list of the 16 main MRCs. Their satellite offices are not listed.

MRC 1
New England MRC
144 Wayland Avenue
Providence, RI 02906
Telephone: (401) 274-9548
Fax: (401) 421-7650
Director: Charlene Heintz
Contact: Nancy Levitt-Vieira

MRC 2
Hunter College of CUNY
Bilingual Programs
695 Park Avenue, Room W924
New York, NY 10021
Telephone: (212) 772-4764
Fax: (212) 650-3815
Director: Jose Vasquez
Contact: Iwan Notowidigdo

MRC 3
COMSIS Corporation
8737 Colesville Road, Suite 1100
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Telephone: (301) 588-0800
Toll Free: (800) 228-6723
Director: Tran Huong Mai
Contact: Jeff Schwartz

MRC 4
Bilingual Education MRC
555 Constitution Street, Suite 208
Norman, OK 73037-0005
Telephone: (405) 325-1731
Toll Free: (800) 522-0772 ext. 1731
Fax: (405) 325-1866
Director: Hai Tran
Contact: Hai Tran

MRC 5
FAU-MRC
1515 W. Commercial Boulevard
Suite 303
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33309
Telephone: (305) 351-4110
Toll Free: (800) 328-6721
Fax: (305) 351-4111
Director: Ann Willig
Contact: Elaine Sherr

MRC 6
MRC for Bilingual Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1025 W. Johnson Street
Room 770
Madison, WI 53706
Telephone: (608) 263-4220
Fax: (608) 263-6448
Director: Minerva Coyne
Contact: Scott Jones

MRC 7
Interamerica Research Associates
2360 East Devon Avenue, Suite 3011
Des Plaines, IL 60018
Telephone: (708) 296-6070
Fax: (708) 296-7892
Director: Judith A. Kwiat
Contact: Phone Khoxayo

MRC 8
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East 7th Street
Austin, TX 78701
Telephone: (512) 476-6861 ext. 217
Fax: (512) 476-2286
Director: Betty Mace-Matluck
Contact: Linda Casas

MRC 9
Intercultural Development Research
Association (IDRA)
5835 Callaghan, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78228-1190
Telephone: (210) 684-8180
Fax: (210) 684-5389
Director: Abelardo Villareal
Contact: Charles Cabazos

MRC 10
Mountain States MRC
Arizona State University
College of Education, Box 870208
Tempe, AZ 85287-0208
Telephone: (602) 965-5688
Fax: (602) 965-8887
Director: Dr. Phyllis N. Garcia
Contact: Barbara Kohl

MRC 11
Interface Network, Inc.
4800 S.W. Griffith Drive
Suite 202
Beaverton, OR 97005
Telephone: (503) 644-5741
Fax: (503) 626-2305
Director: Esther Puentes
Contact: Deborah Sipes

MRC 12
ARC Associates, Inc.
1212 Broadway
4th Floor
Oakland, CA 94612
Telephone: (510) 834-9455
Fax: (510) 763-1490
Interim Director: Janet Lu
Contact: same

MRC 13
California State University--Long Beach
Multifunctional Resource Center
Service Area 13
1250 Bellflower Boulevard
Long Beach, CA 90840-2201
Telephone: (310) 985-5806
Fax: (310) 985-1774
Director: Dr. Maria Quezada
Contact: Amanda Fisher

MRC 14
California State Polytechnic University--Pomona
c/o Office of Continuing Education
3801 West Temple Avenue
Pomona, CA 91768
Telephone: (909) 869-4919
Fax: (909) 869-3777
Director: Sylvia Vela
Contact: Francine Matthews

MRC 15
MRC Pacific Region
1314 South King Street
Suite 1456
Honolulu, HI 96814
Telephone: (808) 593-8894
Fax: (808) 596-2391
Director: Wanda Moore
Contact: Rosalind Mau

MRC 16
Interface Network, Inc
3401 East 42nd Avenue, Suite 201
Anchorage, AK 99508-5420
Telephone: (907) 563-7787
Toll Free: (800) 478-7787 (within Alaska)
Fax: (907) 563-8181
Director: Richard Littlebear
Contact: Toby Allen

IV. *Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)*

The ERIC Clearinghouse system, funded by the U.S. Department of Education, was established in 1966. Each of the 16 ERIC Clearinghouses specializes in a different subject area of education. The clearinghouses acquire significant literature within their particular scope; select the highest quality and most relevant materials; and catalog, index, and abstract them for input into the database. The clearinghouses also provide research summaries, bibliographies, information analysis papers, and many other products and services. Together, the clearinghouses present the most comprehensive mosaic of education information in the country.

The pamphlet All About ERIC is a free publication available from any ERIC Clearinghouse. Listed below are the ERIC Clearinghouses that may be particularly useful to educators in the ESL field.

Adult, Career, and Vocational Education (CE)
The Ohio State University
1900 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1090
Toll Free: (800) 848-4815
Telephone: (614) 292-4353
Fax: (614) 292-1260
Internet: ericacve@magnus.acs.ohio-state.edu

All levels and settings of adult and continuing career, and vocational/technical education. Adult education, from basic literacy training through professional skill upgrading. Career awareness, career decision making, career development, career change, and experience-based education. Vocational and technical education, including new subprofessional fields, industrial areas, corrections education, employment and training programs, education/business partnerships, entrepreneurship, adult retraining, and vocational rehabilitation for individuals with disabilities.

Assessment and Evaluation (TM)
The Catholic University of America
210 O'Boyle Hall
Washington, DC 20064
Toll Free: (800) 464-3742
Telephone: (202) 319-5120
Fax: (202) 319-6692
Internet: eric_ae@cua.edu
Gopher: gopher.cua.edu, Special Resources

Tests and other measurement devices; methodology of measurement and evaluation; application of tests, measurement, or evaluation in educational projects or programs; research design and methodology in the area of assessment and evaluation; and learning theory.

Elementary and Early Childhood Education (PS)
University of Illinois
805 W. Pennsylvania Avenue
Urbana, IL 61801-4897
Toll Free: (800) 583-4135
Telephone: (217) 333-1386
Fax: (217) 333-3767
Internet: ericece@ux1.cso.uiuc.edu

The physical, cognitive, social, educational, and cultural development of children from birth through early adolescence; prenatal factors; parents, parenting, and family relationships that impinge on

education; learning theory research and practice related to the development of young children, including the preparation of teachers for this educational level; interdisciplinary curriculum and mixed-age teaching and learning; educational, social, and cultural programs and services for children; the child in the context of the family and the family in the context of society; theoretical and philosophical issues pertaining to children's development and education.

Languages and Linguistics (FL)
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037-0037
Toll Free: (800) 276-9834
Telephone: (202) 429-9292
Fax: (202) 659-5641
Internet: eric@cal.org

Languages and language sciences. All aspects of second language instruction and learning in all commonly and uncommonly taught languages, including English as a second language. Bilingualism and bilingual education. Cultural education in the context of second language learning, including intercultural communication, study abroad, and international education exchange. All areas of linguistics, including theoretical and applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics.

Reading, English, and Communication Skills (CS)
Indiana University, Smith Research Center
2803 East 10th Street, Suite 150
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
Toll Free: (800) 759-4723
Telephone: (812) 855-5847
Fax: (812) 855-4220
Internet: ericcs@ucs.indiana.edu

Reading, English, and communication (verbal and nonverbal), preschool through college; educational research and instruction development in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; identification, diagnosis, and remediation of reading problems; speech communication (including forensics), mass communication, interpersonal and small group interaction, interpretation, rhetorical and communication theory, speech sciences, and theater. Preparation of instructional staff and related personnel. All aspects of reading behavior with emphasis on physiology, psychology, sociology, and teaching; instructional materials, curricula, tests/measurement, and methodology at all levels of reading; the role of libraries and other agencies in fostering and guiding reading; diagnostics and remedial reading services in schools and clinical settings. Preparation of reading teachers and specialists.

Science, Mathematics, and Environmental Education (SE)
The Ohio State University
1929 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1080
Toll Free: To be announced
Telephone: (614) 292-6717
Fax: (614) 292-0263
Internet: ericse@osu.edu

Science, mathematics, and environmental education at all levels, and within these three broad subject areas, the following topics: development of curriculum and instruction materials; teachers and teacher education; learning theory/outcomes (including the impact of parameters such as interest level, intelligence, values, and concept development upon learning in these fields); educational programs; research and evaluative studies; media applications; computer applications.

Social Studies/Social Science Education (SO)
Indiana University
Social Studies Development Center
2805 East 10th Street, Suite 120
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
Toll Free: (800) 266-3815
Telephone: (812) 855-3838
Fax: (812) 855-0455
Internet: ericso@ucs.indiana.edu

All levels of social studies and social science education; the contributions of history, geography, and other social science disciplines; applications of theory and research to social science education; education as a social science; comparative education (K-12); content and curriculum materials on social topics such as law-related education, ethnic studies, bias and discrimination, aging, and women's equity. Music and art are also covered.

V. In addition to organizations and agencies that cater to the needs of LEP students, there are many others that provide specialized services:

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)
1250 N. Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
Telephone: (703) 549-9110
Fax: (703) 836-7921 or
(703) 549-3891

ASCD, a diverse, international community of educators, forges covenants in teaching and learning for the success of all learners. It is a private, nonprofit membership organization that sponsors conferences and publishes an educational magazine, newsletters, books, and training videotapes.

Bueno Center of Multicultural Education
University of Colorado at Boulder
School of Education, Room 25
Campus Box 249
Boulder, CO 80309-0249
Telephone: (303) 492-5416
Fax: 492-2883
Internet: Leonard.Baca@spot.Coloradoedu

The Bueno Center focuses primarily on training teachers, both pre-service and in-service, as well as offering PhD, Masters, and undergraduate programs. The Center also runs community outreach and literacy projects, offering programs for GED's, and adult education and family literacy classes. It also conducts educational research.

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
Telephone: (202) 429-9292
Fax: (202) 659-5641

The Center for Applied Linguistics is a private, nonprofit organization engaged in the study of language and the application of language research to educational, cultural, and social concerns. Through its staff of professionals trained in linguistics, psychology, anthropology, sociology, and education, CAL carries out a wide range of activities including research; information collection, analysis, and dissemination;

instructional materials design and development; teacher training; technical assistance; conference sponsorship; and language policy formation.

Center for Research on the Education
of Students Placed at Risk (CRESPAR)
Johns Hopkins University
3505 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
Telephone: (410) 516-8800
Fax: (410) 516-8890

Center for Research on the Education
of Students Placed at Risk (CRESPAR)
Howard University
Department of Psychology
525 Bryant Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20059
Telephone: (202) 806-6805 Fax: (202) 806-4873

Formerly known as the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students (CDS), CRESPAR is a new federal education research center operated jointly by Johns Hopkins University and Howard University. CRESPAR's mission is to conduct research, development, dissemination, and evaluation, in order to improve schooling for students determined to be at risk. The research and development conducted by CRESPAR focuses on ways in which schools, families, and community agencies can work together so that these students can realize their potential abilities during their schooling and afterwards. There are seven major research and development programs: 1) the role of cultural factors in African American students' cognitive functioning, 2) the effects of early education and intervention, 3) a longitudinal study of the Success For All program, 4) middle and high school classroom intervention, 5) language minority studies, 6) partnerships with schools, families, and communities, and 7) school reform and policy-related studies.

Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning
Boston University
605 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, MA 02215
Telephone: (617) 353-3309
Fax: (617) 353-8444

The mission of the Center is to conduct research, evaluations, policy analyses, and dissemination to produce new and useful knowledge about how families, schools, and communities influence student motivation, learning, and development. A second important goal is to improve the connections between and among these major social institutions.

Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Center for Education Research
1025 West Johnson Street
Madison, WI 53706
Telephone: (608) 263-7575
Fax: (608) 263-6448

The Center studies how organizational features of schools can be changed to increase the intellectual and social competence of students. The five-year program of research focuses on restructuring in four areas: the experiences of students in school; the professional life of teachers; the governance, management, and leadership of schools; and the coordination of community resources to better serve educationally disadvantaged students.

Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO)
Resource Center on Education Equity
One Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Suite 700
Washington, D.C. 20001-1431
Telephone: (202) 408-5505

The CCSSO is a nationwide, nonprofit organization comprising 57 public officials who head the departments of elementary and secondary education, and in some states other aspects of education, in the 50 states, five U.S extra-state jurisdictions, the District of Columbia, and the Department of Defense Dependents Schools. The Council speaks on behalf of the state education agencies and confers with the Congress and federal agencies "to consider educational interests common to all of the states...which are furthered by a free comparison of views."

Evaluation Assessment Center East (EAC EAST)
George Washington University
1730 North Lynn Street
Suite 401
Arlington, VA 22209
Telephone: (703) 528-3588
Fax: (703) 528-5973

Evaluation Assessment Center West (EAC WEST)
New Mexico Highlands University
121 Tijeras N.E.
Suite 2100
Albuquerque, NM 87102
Toll Free: (800) 247-4269
Fax: (505) 242-7558

The EACs are technical assistance centers whose purpose is to 1) encourage and create partnerships and collaboration within and between LEAs, SEAs, and researchers; 2) provide leadership in the area of assessment of English language learners and program evaluation within the context of assessment reform; and 3) be a resource for innovative practices, policies, and directions in student assessment and program evaluation.

International Reading Association (IRA)
800 Barksdale Road
Newark, DE 19714
Telephone: (302) 731-1600
Fax: (302) 731-1057

The IRA seeks to promote literacy worldwide by improving the quality of reading instruction through the study of the reading process and teaching techniques; serving as a clearinghouse for the dissemination of reading research through conferences, journals, and other publications; and actively encouraging the lifetime reading habit.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
1220 L Street, N.W.
Suite 305
Washington, DC 20005
Telephone: (202) 898-1829
Fax: (202) 789-2866

NABE's mission is to ensure that language-minority students have equal opportunities for learning the English language and for succeeding academically by involving parents in their children's education, identifying and publicizing exemplary programs, promoting research, increasing public understanding of the importance of bilingual education, and fostering the establishment of national language policies.

National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning
University of California, Santa Cruz
141 Clark Kerr Hall
Santa Cruz, CA 95064
Telephone: (408) 459-3500
Fax: (408) 459-3502

This national research center is designed to promote the intellectual development, literacy, and thoughtful citizenship of language minority students, and an appreciation of the multicultural and linguistic diversity of the American people. The Center's work involves researchers from a variety of disciplines, includes participants from throughout the country, and addresses the needs of students from a variety of language minority groups in pre-K to Grade 12 classrooms.

National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing (CRESST)
School of Education and Information Studies/UCLA
1320 Moore Hall
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024-1522
Telephone: (310) 206-1532
Fax: (310) 794-8636

CRESST's mission is to improve methods of measuring student performance, focusing primarily on performance-based assessments such as portfolios, self-evaluations, student projects, student journals, and a variety of other non-standardized assessment techniques.

National Center for Research on Teacher Learning
Michigan State University
116 Ericson Hall
East Lansing, MI 48824-1034
Telephone: (517) 355-9302
Fax: (517) 432-2795
Gopher: Network and Database Resources
-> National Center for Research on Teacher Learning
Internet: gopher.msu.edu

NCRTL research links teacher learning directly to the goals of educational reform -- more rigorous teaching and learning -- through its three major research projects: "Transforming Beliefs about Teaching, Learning and Learners, and Subject Matter," "Connecting Subject Matter to Diverse Learners," and "Learning the Practice of Teaching."

National Center for Restructuring Education, Schools, and Teaching (NCREST)
Box 110
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, NY 10027
Telephone: (212) 678-4051
Fax: (212) 678-4170

NCREST is a private, nonprofit research institution dedicated to the restructuring of schools in light of recent influxes of immigrants. Now working primarily with school districts around New York City, NCREST trains teachers, teaches parents how to become more involved in their children's education, and works with support organizations in the community (churches, clubs) to sensitize them to the particular needs of the newcomers to the community.

National Center for the Study of Writing and Literacy
University of California, School of Education
5513 Tolman Hall
Berkeley, CA 94720
Telephone: (510) 643-7022
Fax: (510) 643-8479

The Center has four major objectives: 1) to create useful theories for the teaching and learning of writing; 2) to understand more fully the connections between writing and learning; 3) to provide a national focal point for writing research; and 4) to disseminate its results to American educators, policy-makers, and the public.

National Center on Adult Literacy
University of Pennsylvania
Graduate School of Education
3700 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, PA 19104-6216
Telephone: (215) 898-1925
Fax: (215) 898-9804
Internet: mailbox@literacy.upenn.edu

NCAL heads a national initiative to focus research and development on the field of adult literacy. Its mission addresses three goals: 1) to enhance the knowledge base about adult literacy, 2) to improve the quality of research and development in the field and 3) to ensure a strong, two-way relationship between research and practice.

National Center on Education in Inner Cities
Temple University
Center for Research in Human Development and Education
933 Ritter Hall Annex
13th Street and Cecil B. Moore Avenue
Philadelphia, PA 19122
Telephone: (215) 204-3001
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In response to the great challenges and opportunities of urban life, CEIC is conducting systematic studies of innovative initiatives that take bold steps to improve the capacity for education in inner cities. A central R & D task for CEIC is finding ways to harness all the major resources and expertise in our nation's cities to improve education and life circumstances of children, youth, and families.

National Center on Literature Teaching & Learning
State University of New York (SUNY)
Albany School of Education
1400 Washington Avenue
Albany, NY 12222
Telephone: (518) 442-5026
Fax: (518) 442-5933

CLTL is an educational research and development center which sponsors a wide variety of collaborative projects focused on developing effective, literature-based approaches to improving students' literary understanding, literacy skills, reasoning abilities, and motivation for learning. The Center also sponsors publications and conferences about new directions in the teaching of literature.

National Center on Science Teaching and Learning
Ohio State University
1929 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1015
Telephone: (614) 292-3339
Fax: (614) 292-1595

The Center's research focuses on non-curricular factors which affect every student and teacher in the United States from kindergarten to twelfth grade. These factors include social and cultural attitudes, public expectations and societal incentives, economic and political forces, new technologies, and content integration. The Center initiates, promotes, and facilitates research and disseminates research findings to all those with an interest in science education.

National Coalition of Advocates for Students
100 Boylston Street, Suite 737
Boston, MA 02116-4610
Telephone: (617) 357-8507
Fax: (617) 357-9547

Seek equal access of quality public education, mostly for children least likely to have access.

National Reading Research Center
University of Georgia
318 Aderhold Hall
Athens, GA 30602-7125
Telephone: (706) 542-3674

The Center's mission is to discover and document those conditions in homes, schools, and communities that encourage children to become skilled, enthusiastic, lifelong readers. NRRC researchers are committed to advancing the development of instructional programs sensitive to the cognitive, sociocultural, and motivational factors that affect children's success in reading. The Center works with teachers as full partners in its research.

National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented
University of Connecticut
362 Fairfield Road U-7
Storrs, CT 06269-2007
Telephone: (203) 486-4826
Fax: (203) 486-2900

The NRCG/T conducts research on issues affecting the education of gifted and talented students. As well as publishing a quarterly newsletter which discloses some of its findings, the Center also provides guidelines and recommendations for parents and educators in its "Research-Based Decision Making Series," as well as video training tapes and parent/teacher practitioners' guides.

National Research Center on Literature Teaching and Learning
State University of New York at Albany
School of Education
1400 Washington Avenue
Albany, NY 12222
Telephone: (518) 442-5171
Fax: (518) 442-5933

The Center sponsors a wide variety of collaborative projects focused on developing effective, literature-based approaches to improving students' literary understanding, literacy skills, reasoning abilities, and motivation for learning. Center projects place special emphasis on the use of literature with students who are historically at risk for school failure, on developing advanced literacy and thinking skills in all students, and on assessment procedures that will support students' thoughtful understanding of literature.

National Research Center on Student Learning
University of Pittsburgh
Learning Research Development Center
3939 O'Hara Street
Pittsburgh, PA 15260
Telephone: (412) 624-7450
Fax: (412) 624-9149

The NRCSL conducts research on effective learning and instruction in elementary and secondary school subjects. Core NRCSL projects examine reasoning, explanation, and problem solving in mathematics, sciences, and social sciences, looking especially at forms of thinking that characterize high levels of competence in these subject matters. Central to this work are studies that describe the ways in which learning can be facilitated by effective teaching, textbooks, assessments of achievement, and social processes of schooling.

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
Modern Language Centre
252 Bloor Street West
Toronto, Ontario M5S 1V6
CANADA
Telephone: (416) 923-6641

The Institute conducts research, graduate studies, and field development (i.e., work with school systems and the problems they face.)

Rural Education and Small Schools (RC)
Appalachia Educational Laboratory
1031 Quarrier Street
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston, WV 25325-1348
Toll Free: (800) 624-9120
Telephone: (304) 347-0400
Fax: (304) 347-0487
Internet: u56e1@wvnvm.wvnet.edu

Economic, cultural, social, or other factors related to educational programs and practices for rural residents; American Indians/Alaska Natives, Mexican Americans, and migrants; educational practices and programs in all small schools; and outdoor education.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
1600 Cameron Street
Suite 300
Alexandria, VA 22314
Telephone: (703) 836-0774
Fax: (703) 836-7864

TESOL's mission is to strengthen the effective teaching and learning of English around the world while respecting individuals' language rights. TESOL promotes scholarship, disseminates information, and strengthens instruction and research. It holds an annual conference, publishes newsletters, journals, and other books, sponsors a job referral service, gets involved with policy decisions, and acts as an umbrella for numerous special interest sections and regional and state affiliates.

Technical Education Research Center
2067 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02140
Telephone: (617) 547-0430
Fax: (617) 349-3535
Internet: Communications@TERC.edu

TERC, a private, non-profit, education research and development organization committed to improving mathematics and science learning and teaching, creates innovative curricula, fosters teacher development, conducts research on teaching and learning, and develops technology tools. The Center has four project-based centers: Mathematics, Research, Science, and Tools for Learning.

Urban Education (UD)
Teachers College, Columbia University
Institute for Urban and Minority Education
Main Hall, Room 303, Box 40
525 West 120th Street
New York, NY 10027-9998
Toll Free: (800) 601-4868
Telephone: (212) 678-3433
Fax: (212) 678-4048
Internet: eric-cue@columbia.edu

Programs and practices in public, parochial, and private schools in urban areas and the education of particular racial/ethnic minority children and youth in various settings—local, national, and international; the theory and practice of educational equity; urban and minority experiences; and urban and minority social institutions and services.

C-ESL Guide No. 4

Annotated Bibliography

C-ESL Guide No. 4

Annotated Bibliography

Elementary and Secondary School Publications

Bernache, C. (1994). Gateway to achievement in the content areas: Essential language , concepts, and skills. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Student text and teacher's manual and resource book. The author, drawing upon her experience as an academic literacy specialist, provides the most important concepts, topics, and vocabulary for the math, science, and social studies classroom. The 12 thematic units deploy a variety of activities which are aimed at developing students' academic language skills. This book is particularly valuable in light of the interrupted schooling patterns that some English language learners have experienced.

Brinton, D. M., Snow, M. A., & Wesche, M. B. (1989). Content-based language instruction. New York: Harper & Row.

While this book focuses mainly on the integration of language and content at the tertiary level, it is informative for other contexts as well. The authors explore three models of content-based instruction—theme-based, sheltered, and adjunct—and provide detailed descriptions of each type of program. They also provide practical suggestions for materials development and program implementation.

Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, M. J. (1994). The CALLA handbook: Implementing the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, designed for limited English proficient (LEP) students who are being prepared to participate in mainstream content area instruction, supports transitional instruction at intermediate and advanced ESL levels through three components: a curriculum correlated to mainstream content subjects; academic language development activities, and learning strategy instruction. Model units in science, mathematics, social studies, and literature and composition are given.

Crandall, J. A. (Ed.). (1987). ESL through content area instruction: Mathematics, science, social studies. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents/Center for Applied Linguistics.

The book brings together ESL practitioners and researchers in the major content areas for a review of models, materials, and methods. The introduction by JoAnn Crandall gives a succint history of the evolution of content-based ESL and makes a convincing argument for the effectiveness of this approach. The three essays that follow provide an "excellent introduction to the rationale for integrating language and content instruction, and offer concrete examples of ways in which this integration can be accomplished."

Crandall, J. A., & Tucker, G. R. (1990). Content-based instruction in second and foreign languages. In S. Anivan (Ed.), Language teaching methodology in the nineties. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

The paper provides a comprehensive overview of content-based language instruction in ESL and foreign language contexts. It defines content-based language insturuction as an integrated approach that draws on topics, texts, and tasks from content or subject matter classes while also focusing on the cognitive academic language skills needed to participate effectively in content instruction. The autors provide a rationale for integrated instruction, describe various program models, identify strategies and techniques which characterize these programs, and discuss ways in which programs develop or are implemented.

Early, M. (1990). ESL beginning literacy: A content-based approach. TESL Canada Journal, 7(2), 82-93. (ERIC Journal No. EJ 407 139).

Provides an overview of writing and reading procedures that can be used to teach beginning ESL students (K-12) subject matter knowledge and expository paragraph structure.

Educational Testing Service. (1993). Performance assessment sampler: A workbook. Princeton, NJ: Policy Information Center, Educational Testing Service.

This sampler is designed to make new assessment efforts and techniques more accessible. The workbook uses as examples excerpts from various alternative assessment programs, providing contact names, addresses, and/or telephone numbers for more information. The examples included in this workbook assess a range of students, from elementary through high school.

Freeman, Y. S., & Freeman, D. E. (1992). Whole language for second language learners. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

This book explains and emphasizes the need for a whole language approach to learning, especially for second language learners. Each chapter of the book counters a commonplace assumption about language acquisition with a basic principle of whole language: that learning needs to begin with a bigger picture, followed by more specific details; instruction needs to be centered around the learner, not the teacher; lessons need to be immediately meaningful and relevant to the student; group learning is most effective; written and oral language skills are acquired simultaneously; native languages should be used in second language acquisition; and the learning potential of bilingual speakers is not limited. The authors use examples of successful whole language approaches to illustrate their points. They also include sample lesson plans and practical helpful ideas for teachers of second language students.

Kauffman, D. (1994). Content-ESL across the USA. Volume II: A practical guide. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Drawing on field reports from 20 schools around the country, this guide advises teachers and administrators how to start, implement, and sustain a content-ESL program. It offers the reader a comprehensive look at a variety of program designs, school dynamics, state mandates, and examples of lesson plans and school evaluation forms taken from the 20 site schools from around the country.

Krueger, M., & Ryan, F. (Eds.). (1993). Language and context: Discipline- and content-based approaches to language study. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath and Company.

This book contains 15 papers delivered at the fifth annual conference of the Consortium for Language Teaching and Learning at Brown University in 1991. The papers discuss issues surrounding the integration of foreign language instruction and other disciplines in the undergraduate curriculum, and the relationship between them. Several case studies of exemplary discipline-based foreign language instruction programs are included.

Levine, J. (Ed.). (1990). Bilingual learners and the mainstream curriculum. New York: The Falmer Press.

This book is divided into three parts. The first section gives a history of ESL programs for bilingual learners in the United Kingdom. The second section uses case studies to detail some teachers' experiences in their mainstream classes and in support lessons with groups of bilingual learners. The last section discusses some of the issues involved with the teaching of bilingual students, English in the National Curriculum, and effective practices for equality of opportunity in education.

Mace-Matluck, B. (1990). The effective schools movement: Implications for Title VII and bilingual education projects. In L. Malavé (Ed.), NABE 1988-1989: Annual Conference Journal. Washington, DC: National Association for Bilingual Education.

While most of the literature on the effective schools movement focuses on schools for minority and low-income students, this article discusses recent studies on effective schools for language minority students. The article summarizes the findings of several key studies, particularly of bilingual schools, and lists the common charateristics of effective schools. Finally, the article examines the implications the movement will have on students with limited proficiency in English, as well as on Title VII and ESL/bilingual education project directors.

Malavé, L. M. & Duquette, G. (Eds.). (1991). Language, culture & cognition. Clevedon (UK): Multilingual Matters Ltd.

This book uses current research findings to discuss the relationship between first and second language acquisition, native culture, and cognitive development. The first set of articles examines cognitive processes used in language acquisition. The next section discusses the nature, role, and effects of native culture in language processing and acquisition. The last and longest section focuses on the teaching and learning process, including the dynamics involved, approaches used, instructional issues, and assessment and testing, in particular regarding minority language children.

Mancill, G. S. (1983). A policymaker's guide to special language services for language minority students. Alexandria, VA: National Association of State Boards of Education.

This guide provides state and local policymakers with a summary of the facts, questions, and debates surrounding the education of students with limited proficiency in English. It begins by offering demographic statistics and defining basic terms like "bilingualism" and "language proficiency." The booklet offers a variety of approaches to educating these students, such as early immersion, English as a Second Language (ESL), and the bilingual education approach. The guide is careful to point out that different methods may be necessary for different students, who enter into these progrmas with varying degrees of English proficiency. Finally, the guide offers policymakers suggestions or guidelines for formulating policies of language assistance.

McDonnell, L. M., & Hill, P. T. (1993). Newcomers in American schools: Meeting the educational needs of immigrant youth. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Publishing.

This report lists the educational needs of immigrant children in six major U.S. cities, and discusses how well those needs are being met. It also suggests ways in which schooling for immigrant children can be improved. The study comes to four major conclusions: 1) that the immigrant segment of the student body is small, but growing steadily and heavily concentrated; 2) that immigrant students are not considered a group requiring specific government policies; 3) that local communities determine the quality of the education immigrant childern receive; and 4) that immigrant students have educational needs that have not been met, but the way to help them is through strengthening local school systems, as opposed to singling them out for special benefits.

Mohan, B. A. (1986). Language and content. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

The author presents a practical framework for treating language as an effective medium for learning. Activities, classroom situations in which the activities can be used, and the theoretical basis for them are addressed. The author also looks at the pitfalls common in the assessment of second language learners, and at ways to avoid them.

Nieto, S. (1992). Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education. White Plains, NY: Longman.

The author explains why multicultural education is necessary, meaningful, and beneficial to students from all kinds of backgrounds, offering a research-based rationale for multicultural education. The book assesses the impact of school policies, native language, racism, class, and expectations of teachers on a student's ultimate success or failure in school, and offers suggestions for implementing multicultural education in schools. The author uses examples from ten case studies to illustrate her points, quoting extensively from the students themselves. One chapter is given over solely to a discussion of the language of diversity.

Numrich, C. (1989). Cognitive strategies for integrating ESL and content area instruction. In Macero, J. D., et al. (Eds.), Realizing the dream. Selected conference proceedings. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 314 959).

Five classroom strategies for improving the comprehension of the content areas by ESL students are described. The strategies strengthen students' ability to process aural input rather than production. The strategies can help students learn English and also prepare them for higher-level thinking skills in the subject areas. The five strategies focus on such skills as (1) predicting on the basis of prior knowledge, (2) anticipating

what will be read next, (3) using statements to check comprehension of a text during reading, (4) analyzing text organization by looking for specific patterns, and (5) classifying to facilitate comprehension of similarities and differences.

Pennington, M. C., & Stevens, V. (Eds.). (1992). Computers in applied linguistics. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

This collection of 12 articles describes the role of computers in language learning from the perspectives of linguists as well as those working in applied fields, e.g. applied linguistics, education, ESL, and foreign language instruction. The first group of articles discusses the limits and benefits of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in relation to other frameworks and software used in second language acquisition. Section II consists of four research studies of applications of computers to writing and grammar skills, as well as other language abilities. The final section describes several valuable and effective computer-based tools, e.g., speech technology systems for phonetics intruction and tools which design computer-assisted foreign language instruction. Teachers should find this book helpful.

Reilly, T. (1988). ESL through content area instruction. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 296 572).

Content-based ESL has been used for many years in adult, professional, and university education programs for foreign students but is now emerging at the elementary and secondary school levels. The approach is effective because language acquisition using this instructional approach, is stimulated by input that is meaningful and understandable to the learner. Such courses offer instruction in the special language of the subject matter while focusing on the subject matter itself. Examples of content-based instruction include: (1) mathematics, where communicating mathematical processes, concepts, and applications in English is emphasized; (2) science, where students learn to think, observe, classify, compare, communicate, measure, infer, predict, and identify space and time relationships in English; and (3) social studies, where students develop critical concepts in order to better understand the history and culture of the United States, as well as develop their cognitive skills.

Richard-Amato, P. A., & Snow, M. A. (Eds.). (1992). The multicultural classroom. Readings for content area teachers. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Including articles by many of the well-known teachers and researchers in the field, this book is a comprehensive look at the multicultural classroom. It is divided into four parts: 1) Theoretical Foundations, 2) Cultural Considerations, 3) Instructional Practices and Materials, and 4) Readings in Specific Content Areas.

Santiago, F., & Spanos, G. (1993). Meeting the NCTM communication standards for all students. In Cuevas, G., & Driscoll, M. (Eds.), Reaching all students with mathematics. Reston, VA: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

The article describes the communicative teaching approach to mathematics, which involves student reading, speaking, listening, demonstration, and writing activities. One such program at the International High School at LaGuardia Community College in Queens, NY, is described, followed by a list of helpful resources for teachers who want to implement a communicative approach to mathematics in the classroom.

Sheppard, K. (1994). Content-ESL across the USA. Volume I: A technical report. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Drawing on data gathered during a three-year study, this report provides extensive information distilled from a series of surveys sent to content-ESL programs (pre-K through 12) in U.S. public schools. Tables, graphs, statistics, and data analysis give readers an opportunity to see what is happening in the field, in this first study about it.

Short, D. J. (1993). Assessing integrated language and content instruction. TESOL Quarterly, 27(4), 627-656.

The integration of language and content instruction in content-ESL programs has raised some interesting questions about assessment: how is a student's progress in language and/or the content material determined? Traditional language tests and content achievement tests are no longer sufficient, since it is difficult to isolate language features from content objectives. This article explores the complexities of assessing students in content-ESL programs, and offers several recommendations for better assessment measures. These include interviews, checklists, portfolios, and performance-based tasks. The article also provides examples of these measures as they are implemented in elementary and secondary content-ESL classrooms.

Short, D. J. (1991). How to integrate language and content instruction: A training manual. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

This manual presents a comprehensive approach to integrating language and content instruction in elementary and secondary classrooms that can be used by both language and content teachers. The manual's underlying premise is that the responsibility for a child's whole education, both language and academic content growth, is shared by language and content teachers. Several examples of thematic units are presented, as well as strategies and techniques for adapting materials and developing lesson plans. The author covers assessment, the issues involved in the implementation of an integrated language and content program, and some models for staff development.

Snow, M. A., & Brinton, D. M. (Eds.). (April 1992). Content-Based Instruction. Special theme issue. The CATESOL Journal, 5(1).

This issue contains many informative and helpful articles, all of which discuss some aspect of content-based language instruction. Some specific topics include guidelines for teachers in designing content-based language tests; the relationship between content-based instruction and vocational English as a second language (VESL); techniques for content and ESL instructors to work effectively together; cooperative learning in content-based instruction; and the relationship between CBI and whole language teaching. The articles focus on learners of all ages. The issue also has several book reviews of other publications centered around these topics.

Snow, M. A., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1989). A conceptual framework for the integration of language and content in second/foreign language instruction. TESOL Quarterly, 23(2), 201-217. (ERIC Journal No. EJ 393 792). The article proposes a conceptual framework for integrating second language and content instruction, in which language and content teachers work collaboratively to determine language teaching objectives. This framework is applied in ESL, language immersion, elementary school foreign language, and mainstream classes.

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The authors examine the many shortcomings of the current educational system in this country, and respond with their own theory of education, where every person involved is both a teacher and a learner. They suggest that schools need to be restructured as "educating societies," and use the Kamehameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP), widely recognized as the best research and development program for elementary schooling, as an example of one highly successful application of their approach. The authors also use results from studies on groups ranging from university students to nursery schoolers, as well as from their own experiences with thousands of students over the last ten years.

United States General Accounting Office. (April 1993). Educational testing: The Canadian experience with standards, examinations, and assessments. (Report to Congressional Requesters). Washington, DC: United States General Accounting Office.

The report examines educational testing practices and policy in Canada, which sets standards at the provincial, rather than the national, level. The report discusses the types of tests used, as well as the precautions against misuse of the tests.

Elementary School Publications

Allen, B. (1990). Content-based second language instruction: Teaching English through mathematics in grades 1-4. Unpublished paper. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 328 085).

Increased interest in content-based language instruction is due to new developments in second language acquisition theory and to the need for equal educational opportunities for the growing number of immigrant children. The article addresses the need to develop specialized vocabulary, language functions for academic communication, language structures and discourse features associated with various disciplines, and classroom language skills. This language development component distinguishes content-based from conventional language instruction. An integrated approach to content-based instruction derives learning objectives from the academic content, language content, and continuous assessment of the student's language skills. To foster communication, activity-based content-based language instruction is endorsed. A series of four class activities for grades 1-4 are designed to promote communication in classroom settings while fostering mathematics learning.

Fathman, A. K., Quinn, M. E., & Kessler, C. (1992). Teaching science to English learners, grades 4-8. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (FL 020 679).

This practical guide reviews basic science learning and teaching principles articulated by the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Science for all Americans. The guide suggests ways in which these can be integrated with language teaching principles in the development of instructional activities and materials. The guide also includes sample units with teacher demonstrations, group investigations, and independent investigations; drawn from Science for ESL learners (Fathman and Quinn, 1989).

Hayes, C. W., Bahruth, R., & Kessler, C. (1991). Literacy con cariño. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.

This book describes the successful methods used by one fifth-grade teacher to teach his limited English proficient students. Student handwriting samples are included to show the students' progress. The methods used by one teacher can be replicated by other teachers with limited English proficient students.

Hone, E. B., Joseph, A., & Victor, E. (1971). Teaching elementary science: A sourcebook for elementary science. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

This science textbook for elementary school students presents the subject matter in a clear and concise format, while offering teachers plenty of suggestions for group and individual projects at the end of each chapter. The authors recognize that teachers have and use different teaching methods and styles, so they include several options for activities, all of which are meant as basic guidelines. The book also suggests field trips, new techniques, and demonstrations.

Irujo, S. (1990). How to plan content-based teaching units for ESL. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, San Francisco, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 320 452).

A step-by-step examination is made of organized language instruction in which all language teaching activities relate to a theme chosen from the science, social studies, or math curriculum. The first step is to choose a topic of interest. The second is to find out what is already known about the topic, decide what extra must be learned, and gather materials. Step three involves developing and organizing activities, and the final step involves identifying objectives. A description of various kinds of units is provided, as well as guidelines for planning units (pre-planned or jointly-planned). A resource list giving additional information and insight into this subject is included, followed by a description of a completed content-based teaching unit designed for elementary school ESL students.

Lim, H. L., & Watson, D. J. (February 1993). Whole language content classes for second-language learners. The Reading Teacher, 46(5), 384-393.

The authors take the position that students with limited English proficiency, or as they refer to them, potentially English proficent students, will learn more when the focus of language instruction is shifted away

from teaching the language directly, to a situation in which students acquire language naturally, through lively exchanges with other students. The key to these exchanges is content area instruction in English. The authors provide examples of successful applications of this approach, as well as handwriting and class exercise samples from several potentially English proficient students.

Met, M. (1991). Learning language through content; learning content through language. Foreign Language Annals, 24 (4), 281-295.

The article defines and describes content-based elementary foreign language programs and provides examples of specific applications in language arts, science, mathematics, art, music, and physical education.

Pappas, C., Kiefer, B., & Levstik, L. (1990). An integrated language perspective in the elementary school: Theory into action. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Beginning with an explanation of the integrated language theory and its theoretical underpinnings, the book gives eight detailed examples of thematic units. The units (which incorporate math, science, language arts, music, and art) are supported by children's literature and other materials suitable for grades K-6. Vignettes from real classrooms lend the book realism. The authors' web diagrams, "how to" lists, and tips on what to observe make this a practical guide for the classroom.

Pierce, L. V. (Comp.). (1988). Using computer concepts as problem-solving tools in the language classroom. (Program Information Guide Series Number 5). Wheaton, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 299 817).

The guide provides teachers of limited-English-proficient students in grades 4-6 with a communicative teaching unit integrating language, math, and computer skills. A model for integrating other content areas with ESL contains nine classroom activities, beginning with games that introduce and reinforce math vocabulary and problem-solving strategies and ending with hands-on practice at the computer. Lessons move gradually from a review of math concepts to classification and categorization of number sets, organizing data to form a database, using the database to organize and manipulate specific lists of numbers, application of the database to problem-solving, and designing and searching a database. In all activities, the teacher introduces the concepts to the whole class and then reinforces and extends them in small groups, in a learning center, and in homework assignments. Objectives for each activity are listed, and each includes recommendations for grouping and the teacher's role, a list of materials, detailed procedures, suggestions for evaluation, and possible extensions of the activity. Two glossaries, one of mathematical terms and one of database terms, are appended. Suggested references and classroom resources are also noted.

Slavin, R. E., Leighton, M., & Yampolsky, R. (June 1990). Success for all: Effects on the achievement of limited English proficient children. (Report No. 5). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

This booklet contains results from the Success for All program, which restructured Philadelphia's Francis Scott Key elementary school to ensure that every student, regardless of background, succeeded in basic elementary school skills. The program used one-on-one tutoring, family support services, assessment, and other innovative techniques to achieve this goal. Of the students in grades K-3, 52 percent are from Asian backgrounds, with little or no English spoken at home. Although Success for All was a pilot study, these students with limited proficiency in English did improve their reading skills.

Slavin, R. E., & Yampolsky, R. (March, 1991). Success for all: Effects on language minority students. (Report No. 14). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

This publication summarizes the results of the Success for All program after two years. While the authors claim that the results from the first year of the program were tentative, by the end of two years, students in the program had substantially improved reading skills, unlike those in control schools, for grades K-2.

Slavin, R. E., & Yampolsky, R. (March, 1992). Success for all: Effects on students with limited English proficiency: A three-year evaluation. (Report No. 29). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

An analysis of the Success for All program after three years of implementation. Once again, students in the program achieved greater reading proficiency than those in control groups.

Thompson, G. B., Tunmer, W. E., & Nicholson, T. (Eds.). (1993). Reading acquisition processes. Clevedon (UK): Multilingual Matters Ltd.

The book begins with the question, "How do children learn to read?" In order to begin to answer that question, the authors first define the process of reading as print word recognition. Following articles differentiate between kinds of reading; examine similarities and differences in the way reading is both taught and learned; discuss the importance of context in word recognition; and examine how progress in acquiring reading or word recognition skills differs from person to person.

Middle School Publications

Atwell, N. (1987). In the middle: Writing, reading, and learning with adolescents. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc.

The book gives the personalized account of one English teacher's exerience teaching writing at the middle school level. The students featured are not second language learners, but Ms. Atwell motivates them to read and write in ways that teachers of students at any level of English proficiency can use. The book is rich in suggestions for making the classroom a reading and writing workshop.

Calderón, M. (February 1990). Cooperative learning for limited English proficient students. (Report No. 3). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

This booklet lists and explains the benefits of cooperative learning methods, where students work together in small, cooperative groups. The benefits of CL to teachers and students with limited English proficiency in ESL, bilingual, or mainstreamed classes are many: CL can be used with students of any age, language proficiency, or background. CL also helps students fine-tune their language skills. It can be easily integrated into content area or bilingual instructional settings. Other benefits include the fostering of positive race relations, positive self-images, and fewer discipline problems. The booklet also offers teachers some guidelines for implementing cooperative learning effectively in the classroom.

Durán, R. P. & Szymanski, M. H. (October 1993). Construction of learning and interaction of language minority children in cooperatice learning. (Report No. 45). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

This booklet examines a cooperative learning activity to analyze the moment-by-moment construction of interaction. A curriculum known as Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) was used in a third grade Spanish-English bilingual classroom. In a CIRC story-related writing activity, students acquire skills in oral expression, writing, and reading by reading aloud with other students, reading silently with other students, and predicting the end of stories with other students.

Fathman, A. K., Quinn, M. E., & Kessler, C. (1992). Teaching science to English learners, grades 4-8. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (FL 020 679).

This practical guide reviews basic science learning and teaching principles articulated by the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Science for all Americans. The guide suggests ways in which these can be integrated with language teaching principles in the development of instructional activities and materials. The guide also includes sample units with teacher demonstrations, group investigations, and independent investigations; drawn from Science for ESL learners (Fathman and Quinn, 1989).

Gilliland, H. (Ed.). (1992). Teaching the Native American. Dubuque, IA: Kendall-Hunt Publishing Co.

This book discusses the many unique issues surrounding the education of Native Americans, and offers teachers of these students many helpful suggestions for the classroom. One chapter offers eight tips to improve social studies classes for Native American students. Another chapter discusses a whole language approach to developing communication skills, and explains why such an approach is preferable for these students. "Teaching Creative Writing to Native Students," "Developing Reading Skills," and "Selecting and Producing Valid Material for Reading and Social Studies" are other informative and helpful chapters.

Henderson, R. W., & Landesman, E. M. (1992). Mathematics and middle school students of Mexican descent: The effects of thematically integrated instruction. (Report No. 5). Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

This paper discusses the results of the first two years of a project designed to strengthen the academic performance of students of Mexican descent in mathematics. The program used a collaborative approach, in which students were assigned to classes heterogeneously, without tracking. A thematic (as opposed to traditional) approach was used, emphasizing cooperative learning groups. The students used hands-on activities in a learning-by-doing approach, which made the problem-solving activities more socioculturally relevant and meanigful. The students' academic performance did improve, but the program did not have much effect on student attitudes toward mathematics.

High School Publications

Berney, T. D., et al. (1990). The cognitive academic learning approaches through ESL. Content areas with career exploration strategies program for bilingual high school students in New York City. Project CALA, 1988-89. (OREA Final Evaluation Report). Brooklyn, NY: Office of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 319 259).

Project CALA was a special alternative program at the International High School in Queens (New York City). In its first year, the project provided instructional and support services, emphasizing career education, to 171 high school students of limited English proficiency (LEP) who had lived in the United States for fewer than four years. The project provided instruction in English reading, content area subjects, and career education. Students participated in job internships and, if eligible, took community college courses. Staff development, curriculum development, and parent involvement activities were also provided. The project met its objectives in the content areas, career education internships, staff and curriculum development, attendance rate, dropout rate, and college application rate. The parent involvement component could not be implemented as intended, and the English language acquisition objective was not met. Recommendations for program improvement include strengthening efforts to develop English language skills by offering additional hours of instruction and providing the data needed for full evaluation.

Coelho, E. (1988). Creating jigsaw units for the ESL classroom: How to develop instructional units for co-operative group learning in the communicative curriculum. TESL Talk, 18(1), 69-81.

Jigsaw, a term which refers to small group instruction, like cooperative learning, is a highly interactive approach to learning. This article explains the jigsaw method, and how it can be used in adolescent and adult ESL classes. Each jigsaw group consist of three to five students, who must rely on each other to complete the assigned task. This method develops students' ability to analyze, synthesize, compare, and evaluate information. The article also offers an outline of a jigsaw activity as a model for teachers who would like to use this method.

Grosse, C. U., & Rosow, R. (February/March 1993). Mainstreaming the language minority student. TESOL Matters, 3(1), 8.

Researchers studied an inner city high school in Miami with numerous Haitian students. In this article they ask and answer the following questions: 1) How well do students with limited proficiency in English do in mainstream classes once they have finished ESL programs? 2) What challenges do these students face in

mainstream classes? 3) How can teachers help these students succeed? 4) What advice would ESL and content area teachers give to these language minority students in mainstream classes?

McPartland-Fairman, P. (1993). Focus on health. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall.

Focus on health is a part of ABC News' ESL Video Library, which uses ABC News or news magazine video footage in advanced ESL/EFL classrooms. In this edition, students first watch a videotape of televised health reports, where the anchors and correspondents serve as models of English proficiency, while the range of interviews for each news segment gives students a feeling for the many different forms of English spoken by other Americans. Each video segment is followed by a set of activities listed in the accompanying textbook. These activities include a closer examination of the language used by the anchors, correspondents, and persons interviewed; reading and responding to questions based on the readings; and a final team task, where a group of students will, for example, act out a trial or organize a debate. The course text is accompanied by a separate answer key for teachers, which includes printed transcripts of each video segment.

Peitzman, F. & Gadda, G. (Eds.). (1994). With different eyes: Insights into teaching language minority students across the disciplines. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Beginning with inspirational testimonies from ESL students, the book centers on the idea that motivation is the linch pin of second language learners' success in higher education. In fact, the book is based on the findings of a project that was meant to link the worlds of high school and higher education more closely. A fine description of sheltered instruction across the disciplines is given and supported by case histories of teachers and students involved in the approach. Elements contributing to academic success such as student-centered classroom configurations, an awareness of cultural differences, and fresh activity ideas make this book an asset.

C-ESL Guide No. 5

Program Profiles

Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School
Urbana, IL

Tuba City Primary School
Tuba City, AZ

16th Street Middle School
St. Petersburg, FL

Woodrow Wilson Middle School
Dorchester, MA

Montgomery Blair High School
Silver Spring, MD

Pittsburg High School
Pittsburg, CA

Program Profiles

These program profiles describe content-ESL programs in primary, elementary, middle, and high schools. The schools are located in a variety of geographical and socioeconomic settings and their programs serve students of many different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The profiles are highlights from more extensive descriptions of site visits included in the final report on a three-year study of content-ESL programs undertaken by the Center for Applied Linguistics for the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs. (See Kauffman, D. (1994). Content-ESL across the USA. A Practical Guide. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.)

Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School
Urbana, Illinois

Grades	K, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program		200
Languages and Number of Speakers	Chinese	60
	Korean	60
	Spanish	20
	Vietnamese	20
	Japanese	15
	Portuguese	15

The School and the Students

Sixty-five percent of the students (of a total 390) at Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School speak languages other than English at home, although the school is located in a predominantly African-American neighborhood in the university town of Urbana. The high percentage of foreign students is due to the proximity of the University of Illinois, which attracts a large number of foreign graduate students who bring their children with them. The school, which has no official connection with the University of Illinois, is one of six elementary public schools in the Urbana district. It is by no means the one most comfortably situated (65 percent of students qualify for federally subsidized lunch). King benefits, however, from the multilingual and highly educated families of its students. They constitute a rich source of part-time teachers in a variety of languages, and in general, an involved parent body. In 1993, attendance at the school was 95 percent.

The Staff and the Program

The original program as it was initiated in 1973 included these components: instruction in students' native languages, ESL, foreign language instruction for American (native English speaking) students, and cultural sharing. From this beginning, the program has come to implement content-based ESL instruction (1984-85). Now first through fifth graders are instructed in a half-day program that integrates ESL with the teaching of social studies and science. It has become a model for other schools in the Midwest, and has received numerous awards. The school will continue to evolve to meet the changing needs of its students and staff.

In this multilingual school, all children, including the 35 percent that speak English natively, study second languages. In 1993, native instruction was offered in 16 languages; French, Spanish, and Japanese were offered as foreign languages. In this way, no child is stigmatized or left out: language learning seems as natural as breathing.

Most of the staff at King hold master's degrees and have between 11 and 15 years of teaching experience. Under a comprehensive arts program the school mounted some three years ago, teachers are given additional preparation time while the children have 30 minutes a day of instruction in music, visual arts, or dance and drama. Not only King's teachers are happy with this arrangement--parents value the well-roundedness of the school day, too.

A typical day for a second grade ESL student at King begins in the regular classroom, where the usual organization matters are dealt with. That class might be followed by a period of art or a visit to the library, which maintains a growing collection of books in most of the languages of the school (in 1993, there were 37).
The child then has two hours of ESL, in which science, social studies, reading, and language arts are integrated. That class is followed by math instruction in the regular classroom. The teacher may give the students recess, as the mood of the class dictates. After lunch, 30 minutes are devoted to native language instruction in which math, reading, language arts, and the history and geography of the children's native countries are integrated. Finally, the last 90 minutes are spent in the regular classroom, again with science and social studies and some language arts. A typical day for a fourth grader is similar, except that more time (15 minutes) is spent in native language content-based instruction. Throughout this school day, regular content, ESL, and native language teachers reinforce students' learning across the curriculum.

Teachers at King are constantly looking for novel ways to teach and assess students. Many of the teacher-made ESL units follow a sequence of instruction that includes a variety of sensory experiences, draws on previously acquired knowledge, touches all four communication skills, and results in the collaborative creation of texts.

One such fourth-fifth-sixth grade unit is devoted to insects. This ESL unit teaches the system of insect classification, among other things, by asking students to identify insect body parts and categorize a large number of insects, many of them from the Illinois region. The unit also has language objectives, in this case, using the present continuous tense and the drafting of short descriptions.

King has developed an elaborate process of in-take, placement, assessment, and mainstream integration. First, parents complete a Student Personnel Record, which includes a question on home language. If English is not spoken at home, they then fill out a more complete inventory called Language Information, and the child is given the Functional Language Assessment, a reading test, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, in kindergarten, or the Urbana Multicultural Program's ESL Reading Test, if appropriate. Subsequently, they are assessed informally by means of teacher-made tests and formally by such tests as the Iowa Test of Basic Skills and the Illinois Goals Assessment Program, administered to all third graders. They are also measured with reference to the Checklist for Observation by Teachers, which looks at specific sub-skills and general classroom behaviors.

The program at King is funded by Title VII, state, and district funds. On mandated tests, students' scores are consistently well above state averages.

Tuba City Primary School
Tuba City, AZ

Grades	Pre-K, 1, 2, 3	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program		512
Languages and Number of Speakers	Navajo	435
	Hopi	56
	Spanish	13

The Setting

Tuba City is a population center (10,000 to 15,000) near the largely rural Navajo reservation in Arizona. It is also a center where six schools are located: a primary school, an elementary school, a middle school, two secondary schools, and a boarding school (K-8). Within the school district, the unemployment rate is 50 percent and, of those adults who are employed, only a fifth are professionals or nonprofessional white collar workers. The majority of the children in the primary school qualify for the funded lunch program.

The Student Body

Of the 812 students enrolled in Tuba City Primary School, 80 to 85 percent are Navajo, 10 percent are Hopi, and there are small numbers of Anglos, African Americans, Latinos (from Mexico and the Caribbean), Middle Easterners, Pacific Islanders, and Native Americans from other nations. For many of the children, the influence of traditional Navajo ways is still quite strong. Up to 15 percent are Navajo dominant, and another 45 percent are first generation speakers of English with limited proficiency. Less than a third come from families in which the parents have good English literacy skills.

The Program

For over a decade, Tuba City Primary had a model transitional bilingual program. From 1992 to 1995, the school phased in a two-way, developmental program for some sections at each grade level throughout the school. Because of a lack of certified teachers who are able to teach content through the medium of Navajo, the remaining sections use a Navajo as a Second Language (NSL) approach. In both approaches, Navajo-dominant children develop and maintain their mother tongue while learning English; English-dominant children (including many children of Navajo ethnicity as well as other backgrounds) learn Navajo while developing further proficiency in English.

The chief difference between the two approaches is in the teaching of the content curriculum. In the two-way bilingual sections, approximately 50 percent of the students are English dominant and 50 percent are Navajo dominant. Each group receives content instruction through the medium of their dominant language. In the sections using the NSL approach, all the students are classified as English dominant but have varying degrees of English proficiency (many have some knowledge of Navajo as well). Here, English is used for content instruction, with sheltering strategies employed as needed.

In all other respects, instruction in the two-way bilingual and NSL sections is identical. All students write and illustrate both English and Navajo booklets as part of the thematic units in the curriculum. For a half hour each afternoon, all sections participate in total-immersion language activities in arts and crafts, games, cooking,

storytelling, drama, physical education, parties, and the like. These sections alternate the use of English and Navajo on a daily basis.

Other Notable Features

Instructional techniques used in the program include: cooperative learning, whole language, thematic units for content instruction, hands-on approach to science, and Math Their Way for mathematics.

A schoolwide program, Writing Is Necessary (WIN), gives writing meaning and purpose and makes it relevant to student needs. Writing contests conducted several times a year lead to prizes for the best essays in English or Navajo. Students in Grades 2 and 3 write letters to the principal and assistant principal, who faithfully read and answer all of them. Students in Grades 1-3 develop their own written midterm progress report with the help of their teachers.

Teachers are encouraged to have their students write every day in a variety of forms: dialogue journals, logs for science projects, stories to go with their favorite picture books, and booklets related to thematic instructional units.

Writing is done according to a process approach. Plenty of time is allowed for drafting, peer review, and revision. All students have their work "published" in some way--for example, put on display in the classroom or hallway, or bound in attractive covers and added to the class library.

Woodrow Wilson Middle School
Dorchester, MA

Grades	6, 7, 8	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program		124
Languages and Number of Speakers	Haitian Creole	116
	Vietnamese	5
	Lao	2
	Cambodian	1

The School and the Student Body

Woodrow Wilson, located in Dorchester, MA, an urban area southwest of Boston, is part of Boston's large city school system. The residents include Haitians, Latinos, Asians, and a few Native Americans. Wilson is primarily a neighborhood school, but it is one of only two middle schools in the district that offer bilingual programs for Haitian Creole-speaking students. Neighborhood children who attend the school come mainly from blue collar or poor families. About 75 percent of the students participate in the funded lunch program.

Although several ethnic groups are represented in the student body at Wilson, students in the bilingual program are all Haitian. The school's population also has a small number (4 percent) of Southeast Asian students (Cambodian, Lao, and Vietnamese) but is able to offer these language minority students only limited instructional support.

The Program

The Haitian transitional bilingual program at Wilson began in 1972. Since 1990, the program has received Title VII funding as part of Project S.T.Y.L.E. (Strategies to Yield Learning Effectiveness) to provide instructional support in math, science, ESL, Haitian culture, and social studies for students in Grades 6-12. The grant also provides workshops and graduate courses for teachers and aides and makes funds available to purchase materials and develop and demonstrate classroom activities that use integrated language and content approaches.

All students in the program speak Haitian Creole (Kreyol); some speak French as well. While their listening and speaking skills in Kreyol are native, most have few reading and writing skills. The use of Kreyol in instruction is limited. Teachers at Wilson permit students to write homework and classwork in English, French, or Kreyol most of the time, but do not teach Kreyol literacy. (Kreyol has been standardized as a written language only recently.) Although the bilingual program is designed to teach subject matter in the native language while the students learn English, the program relies heavily on English medium because very few appropriate materials are available in Kreyol. Thus, the program takes a de facto content-ESL approach. In general, teachers at Wilson follow the mainstream curriculum prescribed by Boston Public Schools, but they select their textbooks carefully and adjust teacher talk. Most textbooks are English mainstream books, though sometimes at a more basic level.

Officially, students remain in the transitional bilingual program for a maximum of three years, but there is no automatic exit at that point. On average, those who have been in the program for a year or two are unable to understand spoken English easily and are below grade level in both English literacy and academic achievement. However, once these students are mainstreamed, anecdotal evidence reveals they show progress, although when they are exited no system-wide monitoring occurs.

Teachers report that they use a variety of strategies and techniques in their classrooms, such as communicative activities, hands-on activities, cooperative learning, class discussions, and direct vocabulary instruction. The classrooms, however, were not equipped with many educational resources. As for language modification, all teachers said they translate when necessary, and most use repetition and a slower pace in the classroom. The teachers are committed to the practice of using two or more languages more or less concurrently. They regularly ask questions in one language, then re-direct them in another in order to check student comprehension regardless of the students' level of English proficiency.

Content instruction is generally conducted in a traditional fashion with teachers tending toward the recitation method of instruction. Therefore, instruction is teacher-centered, discipline is strict, though lightly enforced, and reading and writing activities predominate. This methodology, however, was approved of and preferred by the parents. Most teachers did use examples and visuals to describe or extend the content presented.

Bilingual teachers in the district must be certified or be en route to certification in the students' native language. In 1991-92, Project S.T.Y.L.E. offered a voucher program to encourage bilingual and ESL teachers and paraprofessionals serving Haitian bilingual students in the five Title VII schools to complete state certification requirements.

New immigrant students are screened and assigned to schools at a district office; native language literacy does not affect placement. At Wilson, students are given cloze tests in English and sometimes French and Kreyol to determine their placement. A LAU Assessment Team meets at the end of the year and decides on a case-by-case basis what subjects students are ready to exit into. In general, students are mainstreamed first in language arts or Chapter I reading. Later, they are mainstreamed in math, and then in science and/or social studies.

Another exit option at Wilson is transitional classes with heterogeneous groups of newly-exited bilingual students, mainstreamed special education students, and regular students. In these classes, teachers do not systematically interpret instructions or translate readings, but they modify their language and adjust their instructional practices.

Other Notable Features

The district has a liaison worker who spends two hours per week at Wilson to assist students as interpreter, translator, and conflict resolver. He also counsels parents and communicates with them through phone calls, meetings in the school's Parent Information Center, letters, and talks at the local Haitian church.

The Boston and Brookline Public School districts produce an after-school public cable program, "Extra Help," which some of the Haitian students watch. For four hours, three days a week, this show offers help to all students through its call-in homework helpline and mini-lesson presentations on science, math, ESL, and adolescent concerns.

The teachers are strong advocates for the students and committed to their success, holding them to high expectations. They work as a close team sharing ideas and information about students. Learning is considered a student's responsibility. Because students recognize that their teachers care for them, they show them respect and are well behaved. Parents are ambitious for their children and hold them to a high standard. The school provides them with the means for achieving these ambitions, demonstrating that success often depends on teacher ability to understand the students' culture and assume a culturally appropriate role rather than on American-style expectations about students, instruction, and parental involvement.

16th Street Middle School
St. Petersburg, FL

Grades	6, 7, 8	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program	112	
Languages and Number of Speakers	Vietnamese	32
	Spanish	27
	Lao	20
	Cambodian	18
	Russian	8
	Polish	3
	Others	4

The Setting and the Students

As an inner-city school, 16th Street serves a relatively poor student population. Seventy percent of the students (95 percent of the ESL students) receive free or reduced cost lunches. Sixty percent come from single-parent homes or live with grandparents. Students also come from three federally subsidized housing units, as well as from local shelters, women's residences, youth centers, and a family continuity program for convicted felons.

The ESL Department is housed in three temporary buildings at the end of long, open breezeways behind the school's main buildings, at first glance seeming to be an administrative afterthought relegated to the fringes of school life. Appearances are completely misleading, however. The ESL staff is unfazed by the poverty of the students, the quality of its physical plant, or the lack of resources. Their department and the students it serves are a vital part of school life. As the principal says, the ESL Department "unifies the school."

The Staff and Staff Development Activities

The ESL Department was established in 1981 and is one of 29 ESL Centers (six at the middle school level) in the Pinellas County School District. Pursuant to a state consent decree, in 1991 more than 15 ESL teachers from these centers were trained to train other teachers as part of a program called Training Other Professionals (TOPS). One of the 15 teachers is now the director of the program at 16th Street Middle School and a key trainer there and at neighboring schools. The ESL Department hopes to become a center for staff development, resources, and guidance in the district.

The ESL staff have strong professional qualifications. Three of the four ESL teachers are certified in the content they teach as well as in ESL, and the fourth is getting ESL certification. Two bilingual aides have Master's degrees. All of the ESL staff participate in four workshops per year, as well as in professional conferences and in staff development days led by guest TESOL specialists. Through after-school or summer sessions, most of 16th Street's content teachers have also received from the district 60 hours of ESL training beyond their content-area certification. They attend the same workshops and conferences the ESL teachers go to. The program enjoys strong support from the district's ESL supervisor and testing coordinator, who are involved in activities at the school, and from the principal, who is committed to the program's success and expansion.

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The Program

A well planned program carries students smoothly from in-take, through ESL instruction and gradual mainstreaming, to exit from the program and careful follow-up. A home language survey identifies those students who are speakers of a language other than English. Administration of the Language Assessment Scales (LAS, a nationally normed standardized test) shows their English proficiency, and those needing ESL instruction are placed in one of five levels. As their English proficiency increases, students are phased into mainstream courses. Those in the two lowest ESL levels take mainstream physical education/health and electives. ESL students at the middle level of proficiency may add a mainstream math course. At the two highest levels, ESL instruction is reduced to two periods and finally only one period a day, a special reading course. All ESL instruction is content based.

In mainstream classes, ESL students continue to receive the extra measure of support that they need. They are placed only with those teachers who demonstrate an ability to work successfully with ESL students. The teachers are provided with an ESL Strategies Verification Form to ensure that appropriate strategies are used. Each year the ESL Department compiles a guide listing the names of the ESL students (together with the proper pronunciation) and giving each student's native language, grade level, and ESL level. The guide also provides information on the ESL Department's courses and services. As a result of the collaboration between ESL and content teachers, attitudes toward the ESL students are generally positive.

Students enter mainstream courses whenever they are ready, even in the middle of a grading period. The decision to mainstream is made by a committee composed of ESL staff members, the principal, and a parent, on the basis of standardized test scores, record of class performance, and teacher recommendations. The procedure is flexible, however. Students with low test scores but good grades and teacher recommendations may be exited and then monitored. If they do not do well in mainstream classes, they can return to ESL and exit again later. Conversely, students or their parents can opt to remain in ESL even if the committee recommends mainstreaming. Students are monitored for two years by the district testing coordinator after they exit ESL.

Montgomery Blair High School
Silver Spring, MD

Grades	9, 10, 11, 12	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program		322
Languages and Number of Speakers	Spanish	169
	Vietnamese	80
	Haitian Creole	13
	Russian	3
	French	3
	Mandarin	3
	Others	52

The School and the Student Body

Located less than two miles outside Washington, DC, Montgomery Blair is one of 21 high schools in Montgomery County, MD. It is a large suburban school which has been overtaken by the city. More than 70 percent of its student body of 2300 are from an ethnic minority background. The surrounding community is home to immigrants and refugees from 70 or more countries. Over the years, the dominant groups have changed from Cubans, Koreans, and Iranians, to Vietnamese, Hispanics (from Central America), and Ethiopians.

The Program

Blair has offered content-ESL courses for over a decade, gradually adding content areas until today instruction is available in mathematics, science, social studies, reading, and vocational arts. In addition to the regular mainstream courses, language minority students are served by several alternative offerings including:

- ESL courses at five proficiency levels
- one ESL literacy course
- two Spanish-English bilingual courses, one semester each in science and algebra
- sheltered content courses in several subjects

New immigrant students in the Montgomery County School District are first seen at the International Students Admissions Office. Here school transcripts are evaluated and English proficiency is determined through a battery of tests: a locally normed Minimum English Competencies Test (MEC), and tests in pronunciation, oral retelling, and listening. Students who test out of ESL are placed in mainstream courses; otherwise, students are placed into one of the five ESL levels.

The Blair program is structured so that even the students in the lowest ESL level are scheduled for certain sheltered and mainstream content courses. As students progress in English proficiency, the number of periods in ESL and sheltered classes decreases, while the number of mainstream classes increases. The configuration of classes varies slightly from year to year, depending on the availability of funding and of appropriately trained teachers. The table on the next page shows a typical plan.

Formal assessments of students are conducted twice a year. Students exit the program when they achieve a passing score on the MEC and an oral language test, together with the endorsement of their teachers. Students may also exit the program on the basis of parental requests.

Typical Plan for Transition into Mainstream Courses

Level	ESL Periods	Sheltered Courses	Mainstream Courses
I	three	Social Studies (taught by an ESL teacher) Mathematics (ESL or content teacher)	Art Physical Education
II	two	Social Studies (ESL teacher) Science (content teacher) Mathematics	Mathematics Art Elective
III	one reading	Social Studies (ESL or content teacher) Science (content teacher)	Science Technology Mathematics Elective
IV	one	Social Studies (content teacher) Science	Technology Business Mathematics Elective
V	one (content teacher)	Bridge English	Social Studies Science Business Mathematics Elective

Pittsburg High School
Pittsburg, California

Grades	9, 10, 11, 12	
Number of Students in the Content-ESL Program		106
Languages and Number of Speakers	Spanish	97
	Vietnamese	4
	Tagalog	2
	Farsi	2
	Cantonese	1

The School and the Students

Pittsburg High School is located in a blue collar suburb of single family homes in Pittsburg, California, a town that sits 45 minutes by car northeast of San Francisco. Of the school's more than 2,000 students, roughly 5 percent are enrolled in content-ESL classes. Most of these are Mexican immigrants, but 6 percent are of Asian origin. The student body as a whole is Latino (29 percent), African-American (24 percent), white (28 percent), Asian (1 percent), and "other" (18 percent). The high school student body, with its steadily growing LEP population, reflects the surrounding neighborhood's ethnic composition.

One administrator at Pittsburg described the LEP students as highly motivated. Helping them achieve is a team of supportive teachers, bilingual aides, and administrators. Parents are involved in programs that include the monitoring of the halls by a corps of volunteers. In addition, members of the community come to visit classes and relate their own real-world experiences, sometimes from the perspective of second language learners.

The Program and the Staff

ESL classes have been offered at Pittsburg for eight years. The multidisciplinary content-ESL program, however, funded with state and district money, came into being three years agoÑthe result of a collaborative effort by teachers and administrators. The program is made up of a Bilingual Department and teachers of English literature, ESL, math, science, Spanish, social studies, and business, as well as bilingual counselorÑall of whom work closely with the LEP students on a regular basis. They also work closely to develop joint curricula and confer about students' progress. Most have had more than ten years' teaching experience; all have received certification in content areas and/or ESL, and some have gone on to get higher degrees.

Within the multidisciplinary structure, teachers are using a variety of instructional approaches, including strategies like process writing, whole language, cooperative learning, teaching critical thinking skills, and audiolingual techniques. The joint planning that the teachers engage in has resulted in several initiatives. One is a combined ESL-literature unit on To Kill a Mockingbird; another explores atomic structure in math and science classes. Teachers frequently comment on how much they have learned form each other and on the pleasure they take in planning their classes.

Placement in content-ESL classes is determined using a holistically scored written essay exam taken by LEP students entering high school from junior high. The ESL mentor teacher and content area teachers then comment on the student's progress in their respective classes. On the basis of these recommendations and students' responses, second language learners are placed in appropriate courses at the high school level.

Students' progress in English is measured by the Hart Bill Test, a one-day writing test keyed to the California Achievement Proficiency Domains (persuasive essay, evaluation, interpretation, autobiography, etc.). The test is scored holistically by the faculty. Level II ESL students take the test for practice; Level IIIs take it as an achievement measure and the scores determine when students exit to mainstream courses.

Spanish-speaking students new to Pittsburg High are assessed for their proficiency in English with the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM). After placement in ESL, the students are assigned to one of three levels of Spanish for Spanish Speakers classes. Students usually complete the three levels before being mainstreamed.

Students exit the program on the basis of portfolio evaluation, standardized test scores, teacher recommendation, and committee consensus, as well as a parental request. Upon exit from the program, students are monitored by their teachers and counselors, who discuss their progress with the department chair, who in turn makes any necessary recommendations.

C-ESL Guide No. 6

Sample Surveys, Checklists,
Assessment Protocols, and Student Profiles

C-ESL Guide No. 6

Sample Surveys, Checklists, Assessment Protocols, and Student Profiles

This material has been adapted from forms and protocols generously provided by the 20 schools that participated in the Content-ESL Study, as well as the Prince George's County, Maryland Public Schools. It has been used with permission.

Schools that participated in this study include:

Highland High School
Albuquerque, New Mexico

The International High School
at LaGuardia Community College
Long Island City, New York

McNary High School
Keizer, Oregon

Montgomery Blair High School
Silver Spring, Maryland

Northeast Law/Public Service
Military Magnet High School
Kansas City, Missouri

Pittsburg High School
Pittsburg, California

West Charlotte High School
Charlotte, North Carolina

16th Street Middle School
St. Petersburg, Florida

Benjamin Franklin Middle School
San Francisco, California

Washington Middle School
Yakima, Washington

Woodrow Wilson Middle School
Dorchester, Massachusetts

Gabe P. Allen Elementary School
Dallas, Texas

Hazeltine Avenue Elementary School
Van Nuys, California

J.C. Kelly Elementary School
Hidalgo, Texas

Lincoln Elementary School
Wausau, Wisconsin

Loneman Community School
Oglala, South Dakota

Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School
Urbana, Illinois

Tuba City Primary School
Tuba City, Arizona

White Elementary School
Detroit, Michigan

Yung Wing Elementary School PS # 124
New York, New York

Foreign Student Record and Placement Approval

School _____ Date _____

Name of Student _____ __ Male __ Female
Last First Middle

Date of Birth _____ Date of Arrival in U.S.A. _____

Alien Status: __ Immigrant # _____ __ Non-Immigrant _____ __ U.S. Citizen

Native Country _____ (_____) Native Language _____ (_____)

Grade Placement Approval for Current Year _____

Educational History and Information

Schools Attended	Location	Grade	Year

Comments _____

Refer to:

_____ Bilingual Program
_____ Guidance Counselor
_____ Health
_____ ESL
_____ Reading Specialist
_____ Other

Full Name of Parent/Guardian/Sponsor _____

Address _____

Telephone: Home _____ Work _____

Contact Person/Agency (Name) _____ Telephone _____

Registered by: _____

HOME LANGUAGE INFORMATION

Parent's Name _____ Grade _____
Student's Name _____ Classroom Teacher _____
Country of Origin _____ Date _____
Mother's Native Language _____
Father's Native Language _____

Has your child been in contact with a language other than English? Please explain.

If this language is used in your home, please answer the following questions (circle one):

1. Does the mother feel comfortable talking with Americans in English? Always Usually Usually Not Never

2. Does the father feel comfortable talking with Americans in English? Always Usually Usually Not Never

3. Does the mother speak to the children in her native language? Always Usually Usually Not Never

   a. When the mother speaks to the child in her native language, does the child respond in that language? Always Usually Usually Not Never

   b. When the mother speaks to the child in English, does the child respond in English? Always Usually Usually Not Never

4. Does the father speak to the children in his native language? Always Usually Usually Not Never

   a. When the father speaks to the child in his native language, does the child respond in that language? Always Usually Usually Not Never

   b. When the father speaks to the child in English, does the child respond in English? Always Usually Usually Not Never

5. Do the mother and father speak the native language to each other when the children are present? Always Usually Usually Not Never

6. Do your children use their native language when they play together? Always Usually Usually Not Never

7. How long has your child spoken English? _____(number of years)

8. Has your child attended a school where instruction was carried on in English before coming to this school?
Where?_____
How long? _____

9. How old is your child? _____

ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES PROGRAM
LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT CONFERENCE RECORD - SECONDARY

Date: _____

Student: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Country of Origin: _____ Native Language: _____

School: _____ Grade/Homeroom: _____

ESL Teacher: _____ ESL Entry Date in this system: _____

How long has the student participated in other ESL programs? _____

ESTIMATE OF FUNCTIONAL GRADE LEVEL

Reading _____ Should the student continue to receive additional help in reading/language arts? Yes ___ No ___

Math _____

TEST RESULTS

TEST	TEST DATE	READING	LANGUAGE ARTS	MATH	TOTAL
Other					

COMMENTS

ESL Teacher _____

_____

_____
Signature

Classroom Teacher _____

_____

_____
Signature

Recommend that ESL services be discontinued: Yes ___ No ___
Recommend for other special services: Yes ___ No ___

Services recommended _____

Signature of Principal _____

HOME LANGUAGE SURVEY

SCHOOL CODE	(NAME) LAST NAME FIRST PLEASE PRINT	ID# -- IF NO ID# IS AVAILABLE GIVE BIRTH DATE IN PENCIL

SCHOOLS MUST COMPLETE THIS SECTION.

WE ARE COLLECTING INFORMATION REGARDING THE LANGUAGE BACKGROUND OF EACH STUDENT. THIS INFORMATION WILL BE USED BY THE DISTRICT TO DETERMINE THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN WHO SHOULD BE PROVIDED BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION ACCORDING TO THE SCHOOL CODE AND STATE LAW. WOULD YOU PLEASE HELP BY PROVIDING THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION:

1. DOES YOUR CHILD SPEAK A LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH?

YES NO

IF YES, WHAT IS THAT LANGUAGE? _____

2. DOES EITHER PARENT OR GUARDIAN SPEAK A LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH IN THE HOME?

YES NO

IF YES, WHAT IS THAT LANGUAGE? _____

SIGNATURE OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN ADDRESS DATE

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

PLEASE HAVE YOUR CHILD RETURN THE SIGNED FORM TO HIS/HER TEACHER AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

Hart Bill Test

Writing Sample

There are probably several places you would rather be right now than sitting in this room writing. Write about one of those places and include two things in your writing. One, describe the place as vividly as possible and two, ensure that your reader will clearly understand why you would like to be there. The place may be real or imaginary. Use as many details as you can. Sentences should relate to the topic. Punctuate, spell, and use words as correctly as possible.

Describe un objeto (no puede ser ni una persona, ni un animal ni un evento) que tiene un significado especial para tí. Este objeto quizás no tenga ningún valor monetario pero es importante para tí y quieres guardarlo. Escribe un párrafo de por lo menos 8 oraciones diciendo lo que es, como llegó a tus manos, y por qué es tan valioso para tí. Las oraciones deben de estar relacionadas con el tema. Pon atención a la puntuación, deletreo y trata de usar las palabras correctamente.

Summary Sheet for Analytic Scoring of Writing Sample

STUDENT:_____SCHOOL_____DATE____

GRADE:_____

	High	Mid	Low	Subscore
I. CONTENT				
A. Ideas	3	2	1	_____
B. Organization	3	2	1	_____
II. MECHANICS				
A. Syntax (relationship and arrangement of words in a sentence)	3	2	1	_____
B. Usage/word choice	3	2	1	_____
C. Punctuation/ capitalization	3	2	1	_____
D. Spelling	3	2	1	_____
Total Score				_____

Does student score 12 points or above?

yes ___ no ___

Assign student to
Beginning S.L.A. _____
Advanced S.L.A. _____

THE FOLLOWING SKILLS CHECKLIST IS COMPLETED BY THE ESL TEACHER

	Excellent	Adequate	Poor
I. ORAL COMPREHENSION			
A. Understands basic functional English.	_____	_____	_____
B. Comprehends multi-step directions.	_____	_____	_____
C. Accurately recalls information given orally.	_____	_____	_____
D. Comprehends oral discussion in content classes.	_____	_____	_____
E. Seeks help when clarification is needed.	_____	_____	_____
II. ORAL EXPRESSION			
A. Pronounces sounds in words accurately.	_____	_____	_____
B. Uses words correctly in context.	_____	_____	_____
C. Acquires vocabulary independently; uses new words in conversations and discussions.	_____	_____	_____
D. Expresses ideas in complete thoughts.	_____	_____	_____
E. Communicates with teacher.	_____	_____	_____
F. Communicates with students.	_____	_____	_____
III. READING			
A. Demonstrates ability in word identification skills.	_____	_____	_____
B. Identifies main ideas and supporting details.	_____	_____	_____
C. Identifies sequence of events.	_____	_____	_____
D. Identifies cause and effect relationships.	_____	_____	_____
E. Draws conclusions and makes predictions based on text read.	_____	_____	_____
IV. WRITING			
A. Writes legibly.	_____	_____	_____
B. Uses correct spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.	_____	_____	_____
C. Uses correct grammatical structures.	_____	_____	_____
D. Demonstrates ability to write directions.	_____	_____	_____
E. Demonstrates ability to write short paragraphs.	_____	_____	_____
F. Demonstrates ability to write stories and/or short reports.	_____	_____	_____
V. STUDY HABITS			
A. Shows willingness to participate.	_____	_____	_____
B. Works independently when appropriate.	_____	_____	_____
C. Completes work on time.	_____	_____	_____
D. Works collaboratively when appropriate.	_____	_____	_____

EVALUATION OF CLASSROOM PERFORMANCE

STUDENT _____ GRADE _____ DATE _____

SCHOOL _____ ESL TEACHER _____

How many years has the student participated in the ESL program? _____
Other ESL programs? _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER:

The above student is being considered for exit from the ESL program. To help evaluate the student's overall achievement, please use the following scale to rate the student's performance in your class.

CATEGORY 1: Ability to Learn Course Content

Rate the student on the ability to master the content of the course you teach, regardless of the reasons.

1	2	3	4	5
unable		average		very capable

CATEGORY 2: Academic Performance

Rate the student's performance in class compared with English-speaking students and reflected by grades received during the year.

1	2	3	4	5
unsatisfactory		average		excellent

CATEGORY 3: Study Habits

Rate the study habits which the student uses in your class. Does the student bring the necessary books and other materials to class? Does the student begin work promptly, listen attentively to instructions, follow directions carefully, and complete assigned tasks punctually? Does the student work independently?

1	2	3	4	5
no effort		average		highly motivated

CATEGORY 4: Class Participation

Rate the student's participation in class activities and discussions.

1	2	3	4	5
minimal		average		active

CATEGORY 5: Communication with Teacher

Rate the student's skill in communicating with you. Can the student express ideas adequately in English? Does the student use relevant vocabulary in conversations and discussions? Does the student ask questions to clarify misunderstanding about assignments and course content?

1	2	3	4	5
weak		average		highly articulate

CATEGORY 6: Communication with Peers

Rate the student's skill in communicating with classmates. Does the student try to talk to other students in English? Can the student express ideas, opinions, and interests to peers? Do other students understand him or her?

1	2	3	4	5
weak		average		highly articulate

PREDICTION OF SUCCESS

Predict the student's chances for success in regular classes if he or she receives no additional help in learning English as an additional language.

1	2	3	4	5
unlikely		average		excellent

Would you recommend the student for other special services? Yes ___ No ___

Service(s) recommended _____

_____

COMMENTS: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____ _____ _____

Signature of Teacher Class or courses Date

Evaluation Guidelines

Reader's Name: _____

The following categories and descriptions are for self, peer, and instructors' evaluations. To deserve an A in classwork or portfolio, the student should achieve an A in most of the categories, not necessarily every one. To deserve a B, s/he should achieve a B in most of the categories. An A in some and a C in others is also possible.

Classwork:

Attendance, lateness

A None except for emergencies
B 2-3
C 4-6
D 7-8
N.C. 9 or more

Mark _____

The amount of work completed

Has completed _____ activities.

A 14-15 activities
B 12-13 activities
C 10-11 activities
D 8-9 activities
N.C. not acceptable

Mark _____

Understanding of Classwork

Can explain almost all of the work to others
A almost all of the time
B most of the time
C sometimes yes, sometimes no
D rarely, needs improvement
N.C. not acceptable

Mark _____

Working with others

Leader, supports others, helps others
A almost all of the time
B most of the time
C sometimes yes, sometimes no
D rarely, needs improvement
N.C. not acceptable

Mark _____

Concentration

Works on activities, does not fool around
A almost all of the time
B most of the time
C sometimes yes, sometimes no
D rarely, needs improvement
N.C. not acceptable

Mark _____

Communication growth

Progress in the ability to write, speak, and understand English, or consistent mastery
A excellent
B good
C fair
D poor
N.C. not acceptable

Mark _____

Classwork Mark: _____

PORTFOLIO COVER SHEET

STUDENT NAME _____ DATE _____
CLASS _____

Type of assignment _____

I have chosen to place this item in my portfolio because
_____
_____
_____

From this assignment I learned... _____
_____
_____
_____

One thing I want to tell you about this assignment is...
_____
_____
_____

When I look at this assignment
I like _____
_____

I would improve _____
_____

If I were to give myself a grade on this assignment, it would be a grade of _____ because
_____
_____
_____

Teacher signature _____
Comment:

C-ESL Guide No. 7

Guidelines: Developing Curricula

C-ESL Guide No. 7

Guidelines: Developing Curricula

Content-ESL students need curricula that support their English language development while strengthening their thinking skills, study skills, and understanding of conventional subject matter such as mathematics, science, and social studies. That means that an optimally effective content-ESL curriculum must aim at more than a single set of objectives and, since few models exist, that schools will have to tailor new curriculum meeting the needs of their students out of whole cloth. An important implication is that off-the-shelf curricula that presuppose a monolingual student population are no longer adequate: the standard social studies package must be supplemented with language instruction, for example. Another is that, as students vary across school districts, so curricula must vary somewhat to accommodate their rich diversity. Many districts throughout the country have thus begun to see this challenge as an opportunity, not just for curricular revision, but for school reform as well. Be that as it may, a few general guidelines have begun to emerge.

1. Three models are commonly referred to in the literature: theme-based ESL instruction, specially designed content courses, and adapted mainstream courses. In the first of these, some classtime in ESL is devoted to activities that explore thematic content drawn from a number of disciplines. In the second, courses already on the books, such as civics and health, are redesigned to include systematic work on the language. In the third, presentation of the material in a mainstream course is adapted to accommodate the developing English proficiencies of the students. Each type of course has a place in the educational system, but each belongs to a slightly different set of circumstances. In some large schools, all three types are available more or less in the sequence in which they are presented here. See C-ESL Guide No. 13 for more on developing a thematic unit.

2. It is important to have both content and language objectives for content-ESL courses. Needless to say, this is not a simple matter. Content teachers, for example, may not be familiar with how language is taught, or even with how we talk about language. Thus it is difficult for them to recognize and capitalize upon the language learning opportunities in their courses. On the other side, language teachers may not be fully familiar with course content, particularly since course content in some fields is changing under pressure from parents, professional organizations, and the national mood for reform and enhanced standards. Therefore, time should be set aside for teachers from various disciplines to work together in formulating these objectives. Specifically, it is important to understand in some detail what the language demands of a content course are: Do they include activity in all four modalities (listening, speaking, reading, writing)? Do they do so in equal measure? Many schools have undertaken a thorough needs assessment over an entire school year to establish such facts.

3. Beyond designating objectives, of course, there is also the need to develop activities for the classroom. Here is where careful planning pays off. Cross-disciplinary teacher teams at many schools, working closely over an extended period, have developed curricular activities that reinforce language and content in a variety of ways that enhance instruction across the board. Thematic units, for example, can be fun to create and can, by requiring students to revisit core material in several classes, improve achievement in every course.

4. The thematic approach is now widely popular. Willis (1992), among others, has specified criteria for the selection of overarching, interdisciplinary themes for regular courses in the form of questions:

   - **How will the theme promote future learning?** In other words, does it lead to subsequent gains in knowledge, or is it simply a trivial side-show?

- **Is it substantive?** David Perkins of Harvard's Project Zero offers the example of "transportation" as an arbitrary category that "doesn't boil down to much" (quoted in Willis, 1992).

- **Does it have a real-world application?** As Susan Kovalik says, "Dinosaurs are dead," referring to the fact that the topic, while popular among small children, has little application (quoted in Willis, 1992).

- **Are relevant materials available?** Although this may not always be an issue (teachers at Benjamin Franklin Middle School in San Francisco, for example, used a mix of commercially produced and home-grown material for their "Circumnavigation Project"), sources should be identified before too much planning has taken place.

- **Is it age appropriate?** U.S. trade policy is obviously more appropriate to adolescent learners than to children; similarly, adopting a tree may hold the interest of Grade 1 students more than those in Grade 10.

- **Is it related to other themes or content emphases?** A logical connection between themes makes it possible for students to draw larger and larger conclusions and ultimately reach a level of generalization that promotes their general cognitive development.

- **Is it worth the time required to implement it?** Only after all the other questions have been answered can a teacher tell whether the time invested in the development process has a real pay-off or not. To go forward, she should be reasonably certain that her students will benefit in their general development more than they would have if she had clung to her established routine.

5. Finally, teachers who are interested in developing content-ESL curricula that have an interdisciplinary focus and a dual objective should be aware that the effort is most likely to be successful if it involves collaboration among colleagues from several departments, it enjoys the active support of the school's administration, and sufficient time is allocated for experimentation, coaching, and collaborative refinement. Since the process is to some extent a voyage into the unknown for everyone involved and the issues are complex, everyone on board should understand at the outset that it may require a major investment of time and energy if it is really going to work for all participants.

References

Perkins, D. N. (1989). Selecting fertile themes for integrated learning. In Jacobs, H. H. (Ed.). Interdisciplinary curriculum: Design and implementation. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Willis, S. (1992). Interdisciplinary learning. Curriculum Update, November. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

C-ESL Guide No. 8

Guidelines: Evaluating Assessment

C-ESL Guide No. 8

Guidelines: Evaluating Assessment

In the mid-1990s, educational assessment underwent major shifts in various directions, but little consensus was reached as to issues of large-scale assessment of language minority students. What did emerge was a series of smaller-scale procedures that collectively suit the demands of school-based programs. These fall into six categories, each described below. A list of standardized tests commonly used in content-ESL programs across the United States concludes the guide. Sample materials used for informal assessment appear in C-ESL Guide No. 6.

Types of Assessment

1. **Placement**. Testing for placement varies considerably across programs. In general, a variety of tests, yielding a profile of student capabilities, is preferable to a single measure. One possible component of the battery is an oral proficiency test in English; another, whenever possible, is a test in the student's native language proficiency, for example, a reading test. Whatever the components, some formula should be devised that provides cutoff scores for placement into programs.

2. **Oral proficiency**. Oral proficiency testing has a long history but fell into disuse during the 1970s and 1980s. Its primary use in content-ESL programs is to assess students' proficiency levels when they enter the program. Although more conventional measures such as a writing sample or a grammar test may form part of the in-take battery, neither of those tests gives educators a clear picture of how well a student can function in class. Unless she can participate fully in class discussion, raise questions confidently, and conference with the teacher, she is unlikely to benefit maximally from content-ESL classes. See Pierce & O'Malley (1992) for suggestions on oral language assessment.

3. **Continuous**. In general, teachers today see more value in shorter measures of student progress administered frequently than in longer, standardized tests given once or twice a year. The reasons are that 1) tests have a diagnostic function, and more frequent assessment yields a more finely tuned diagnosis, and 2) standardized tests normed on native speakers rarely assess the English of LEP students accurately.

4. **Cooperative**. Since many teachers of LEP students endorse cooperative learning as a general approach, many also favor cooperative testing. This form of testing, which typically, though not always, awards a single grade to a cooperative group rather than an individual, is consistent with certain Vygotskyan notions such as the "zone of proximal development." In essence, the theory holds that educators gain a better sense of students' abilities when they give them problem-solving tasks that require a pooling of resources (each group member provides some input), rather than an individually administered paper-and-pencil test. See C-ESL Guide No. 12 for a discussion of cooperative learning in small groups.

5. **Performance**. Performance assessment, commonly identified as a form of "authentic" assessment, has received considerable attention as programs grapple with the need to provide students with a functional knowledge that can be put to use in a rapidly expanding economy. In this case, students are required to do a hands-on task, create a product, or perform an experiment that demonstrates an underlying competence. In the context of content-ESL programs, performance testing can take the form of more limited behaviors such as story retelling, report preparation, or an oral presentation in class. Thus, performance assessment overlaps with other types of task-oriented testing outlined above.

6. **Portfolio.** Portfolio assessment is still another form of performance assessment, one that has taken on a life of its own--indeed, many lives, since there is considerable variation in the way it is structured across the country. In essence, in portfolio assessment, students select pieces of their work--drafts, final essays, reports, test results--and put them into a file. Then, periodically, they evaluate the work they have collected to gain a closer understanding of how much progress they have made and how much they need to make to achieve a specified outcome. They frequently conference with their teachers over their work, and they typically end the school year with a stronger sense of themselves as learners and a deeper personal investment in the process of learning.

Guidelines

1. Use multiple measures rather than a single measure. Single measures--say, a writing sample--rarely provide a comprehensive picture of a student's level of knowledge. Nor do they yield the kind of diagnostic information that you will find useful in planning subsequent lessons. On the other hand, integrative measures (i.e., those that require the student to employ more than one skill simultaneously) sometimes mask problems the student is having in a single domain (e.g., listening) by not differentiating between skills. The best policy seems to be to experiment with several measures until the right mix is achieved.

2. Be sensitive to the problems LEP students have with various types of assessment that are common in this country. Not only are standardized tests such as the classic multiple-choice type intrinsically intimidating, at least in part because of the atmosphere in which they are given and their associated time constraints, they are frequently biased culturally, and their format may be completely unfamiliar to an immigrant student.

3. Bear in mind that the students' knowledge of the second language is gradually expanding, so they should be measured against developmental norms rather than fixed criteria. Since language acquisition is not a simple linear process (i.e., it is characterized by considerable backsliding, the constant threat of fossilization, and sudden spurts in development), cross-sectional assessment is hazardous at best. For that reason, longitudinal assessment (e.g., continuous or portfolio assessment) is a safer bet.

4. Use assessments to find out how well students understand the content as well as the language. For example, you might ask them to read and paraphrase a math problem, or you might ask them to read and react in their journals to an article on a recent event in the news, or you might ask them to perform an experiment with other students and report the result. Needless to say, these tasks should be appropriate to their cognitive and linguistic level, but, assuming that is the case, ask them to use the language to express their understanding of the content of your course. In evaluating students' responses, try to overlook errors that stem solely from inadequate language resources, focusing instead on evidence of appropriate content knowledge.

5. By implication, therefore, avoid reductionist assessments such as fill-in-the-blanks exercises, meaningless completion items, or reading comprehension tests that depend more on recall and prior knowledge than on reading ability. Such tests may be useful time-fillers, but they rarely ask students to process content or use language in a way that approximates what they will ultimately have to do. It is probably worth reminding yourself from time to time that good assessment is, among other things, an opportunity for students to consolidate, evaluate, and expand what they have already learned--in other words, to learn even more in the process of being tested.

6. If you opt for portfolio assessment, make sure that students understand the criteria on which their work will be evaluated. You may want to invite the students themselves to evaluate the material that they

have inserted in their portfolios. Make sure also that the material in the portfolio that requires a holistic assessment is read by more than one teacher. Ideally, at least one reader should be a content teacher, and at least one should be an ESL teacher. In any case, check inter-rater reliability frequently to make sure that comparable criteria are being applied. Otherwise, not only will discrepancies contaminate the process, but issues of bias and equity will arise.

7. Try, whenever possible, to transform assessment into an opportunity for students to consolidate what they have learned and to make use of it. In other words, turn the test into a learning experience. Do that by relaxing controls (e.g., the amount of time allocated), allowing students to collaborate or consult sources, and asking students to evaluate the results themselves. Not only will the students then make a deeper investment in the process, but you will get a clearer sense of what they can and cannot do.

References on Alternative Forms of Assessment

Appalachia Educational Laboratory and Virginia Education Association (1992). Alternative assessments in math and science: Moving toward a moving target. Charlotte, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

Council of Chief State School Officers (1992). Limited English proficient students. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Educational Testing Service (1993). Performance assessment sampler. Princeton, NJ: ETS Policy Information Center.

Garcia, E. (1993). Director's note: Linguistic diversity and national standards. Focus on Diversity, 3(1).

Herman, J. L., Aschbacher, P. R., & Winters, L. (1992). A practical guide to alternative assessment. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Pierce, L. V., & O'Malley, J. M. (1992). Performance and portfolio assessment for limited English proficient students. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement (1994). The ERIC Review, 3(1).

Zessoules, R., & Gardner, H. (1991). Authentic assessment: Beyond the buzzword and into the classroom. In Perrone, V. (Ed.). Expanding student assessment. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Standardized Tests Used in Content-ESL Programs

The following list is compiled from information supplied by schools throughout the United States that responded to survey questionnaires from the Center for Applied Linguistics during its three-year study of content-ESL programs in Grades pre-K through 12.

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) - language proficiency. For more information about ACTFL guidelines write to: ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701. Telephone: (914) 963-8830.

Arizona Student Assessment Program - designed as a checklist to measure students' progress in the areas of language arts/listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and study skills. The test is available from: Tuba City Primary School, Tuba City, AZ 86045.

Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) - designed to measure the English and Spanish oral proficiency of bilingual students. The BSM is available from: Psychological Corporation, 555 Academic Court, San Antonio, TX 78204. Attention: Marina K. Burt, Heidi C. Dulay, and Eduardo Hernandez-Chavez. Telephone: (512) 299-1061 or (800) 228-1752.

California Achievement Test (CAT) - designed to provide valid measurement of basic academic skills. For more information on CAT, contact: Alan Gnospelius, 19730 Encino Glen, San Antonio, TX 78259. Telephone: (210) 497-8251. To order contact: CTB MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2500 Garden Road, Monterey, CA 92940. Telephone: (800) 538-9547.

California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) - tests all students in Grades 1, 2, 3, 6, and 12 to assess their skills in effectiveness of written expression, spelling, and mathematics. For information, contact: Alan Gnospelius, (512) 497-8251. To order, contact: CTB/MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 6400 Atlantic Blvd., Suite 130, Norcross, GA 30071. Telephone: (800) 538-9547.

Cloze Listening Test - designed to measure recall of specific information, ability to grasp the thought of a passage as a whole, and ability to apply various contextual clues while listening to a passage of aural communication. Each of the alternate forms of the cloze listening test consists of an audio tape recording of approximately twenty minutes' duration and a four-page response form containing numbered lines on which responses are to be written. More information can be obtained from the publisher: Hodder & Stoughton Educational, London.

Cloze Test for Deletion Produced Structures - designed to measure comprehension of intact and deleted sentence structures corresponding to selected deletion transformation rules, this test is intended to be used with primary age children. More information can be obtained from the publisher: Hodder & Stoughton Educational, London.

Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test in English (IPT) - designed to measure oral proficiency in English or Spanish. Responses are scored and converted into one of seven proficiency levels. Further information is available from: Ballard & Tighe, Inc., 480 Atlas Street, Brea, CA 92621. Attention: Wanda S. Ballard, Phyllis L. Tighe, and Enrique F. Dalton. Telephone: (714) 990-4332 or (800) 321-4332.

Illinois Goal Assessment Program (IGAP) - tests a student's ability in reading, writing, and math in Grades 3, 6, 8, and 10, and knowledge of science and social science in Grades 4, 7, and 11. The test is available to public schools in Illinois. To order it, write to The Office of School and Student Assessment of the Illinois State Board of Education, 100 North First Street, Springfield, IL 62777. Telephone: (217) 782-4823.

Iowa Test of Basic Skills - designed to provide for comprehensive and continuous measurement of growth in the fundamental skills: vocabulary, methods of study, and mathematics. To order, contact: Riverside Publishing, 8240 West Bryn Mawr Avenue, Chicago, IL 60631. Telephone: (800) 323-9540.

Language Assessment Battery (LAB) - designed to measure English and Spanish proficiency for program placement and evaluation. Verbal and written responses are scored according to key. Further information can be obtained from: New York City Board of Education, O.E.A. Scan Center, 49 Flatbush Avenue Extension, 5th Floor, Brooklyn, NY 11201. Attention: Grace Bijou. Telephone: (718) 596-5226/7.

Language Assessment Scale I (LAS) - Grades 2-5. Designed to measure oral language skills in English or Spanish. Verbal or motor responses are scored and converted into proficiency levels. Further information is available from: Linguametrics Group, P.O. Box 3495, San Raphael, CA 94912-3495. Attention: Edward DeAvila and Sharon Duncan. Telephone: (800) 247-9436 or (800) 624-7373.

Language Assessment Scale II (LAS) - Grades 6 and up. Designed to measure oral language skills in English or Spanish. Verbal or motor responses are scored and converted into proficiency levels. Further information is available from: Linguametrics Group, P.O. Box 6495, San Raphael, CA 94912-3495. Attention: Edward DeAvila and Sharon Duncan. Telephone: (800) 247-9436 or (800) 624-7373.

Minimum English Competencies Test (MEC) - a standardized test created by the Montgomery County (Maryland) Board of Education's Department of Accountability. It has several forms and was validated again by the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) in 1983.

National Achievement Test (NAT) - designed to measure student achievement in the skill areas commonly found in school curricula. The Second Edition of the National Achievement Test is a revision of the Comprehensive Assessment Program (CAP), first published in 1980. More information can be obtained from the publisher: American Testronics, 424 George Richey, Longview, TX 75605. Contact: Roger Milton, Consultant.

New York Regents Competency Test - tests reading comprehension, writing, and math skills. It is designed to identify students who have not attained a level of proficiency in basic skills and who are not eligible for graduation from high school. For more information, contact: University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Albany, NY 12234.

Norm-referenced Assessment Program (NAPT) - for more information contact: Martha Mullins, (800) 442-8855. To order, contact: Riverside Publishing, 8420 West Bryn Mawr Avenue, Chicago, IL 60631. Telephone: (800) 323-9540.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test - assesses standard American English receptive vocabulary in individuals, both handicapped and nonhandicapped, ages 2-40. For more information, contact: American Guidance Service Inc., Publisher's Building, Circle Pines, MN 55014.

Pre-Language Assessment Scales (Pre-LAS) - Grades K-1. Designed to measure general oral English language ability in morphology, syntax, and semantics. Further information is available from: Linguametrics Group, P.O. Box 3459, San Raphael, CA 94912-3495. Attention: Sharon E. Duncan and Edward A. DeAvila. Telephone: (415) 459-5350.

Riverside Test [La Prueba Riverside de Realización en Español] - an achievement test for Grades K-8 which measures skills in social studies, sciences, reading, and math. Further information is available from: Riverside Publishing Company, 8420 Bryn Mawr Ave, Chicago, IL 60631.

Secondary English Exam - Grades 5-12. Used to assess English proficiency levels of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Designed by ESL teachers in the Yakima School District. Contact: Frank Naasz, Director of Categorical Programs, Yakima School District, Yakima, WA. Telephone: (509) 575-3439.

Secondary Level English Proficiency Test (SLEP) - Grades 7-12. Designed to measure ability in understanding spoken and written English. Uses multiple choice questions in listening and reading comprehension. Further information available from: Secondary Level English Proficiency Test, CN 6158, Princeton, NJ 08541-6158. Telephone: (609) 734-5264.

Spanish Assessment of Basic Education (SABE) - Grades 1-8. Assesses basic reading and math skills of Spanish speaking LEP students. Information can be obtained from: CTB/MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 6400 Atlantic Blvd., Suite 130, Norcross, GA 30071. Telephone: (800) 538-9547.

Stanford Achievement Test (Stanford) - measures the important learning outcomes of the school curriculum. Information regarding the Stanford Achievement Test can be obtained from The Psychological Corporation, San Antonio, TX 78283-3954.

Structure Tests-English Language (STEL) - Junior high and above. Designed to measure knowledge of syntactic structure and vocabulary in English. Multiple choice responses are converted into six placement levels. Further information is available from: Harper & Collins Publishers, Keystone Industrial Park, Scranton, PA 18512-4621. Attention: Jeanette Best and Donna Ilyin. Telephone: (800) 242-7737.

Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) - assesses comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar skills. More information can be obtained from: San Jose (CA) Unified School.

Test of Achievement and Proficiency (TAP) - provides an effective and comprehensive appraisal of student progress toward widely accepted academic goals in basic skill areas. Measures reading comprehension, math, and written expression, using as sources of information, social studies, science, and writing and listening. Used for Grades 9-12, TAP is a continuation of ITBS. More information is available from: Riverside Publishing Company, 8420 Bryn Mawr Ave, Chicago, IL 60631.

Texas Academic Assessment Skills Test (TAAS) - Grades 3-12. Mandated by state. Given to all students. Measures knowledge of reading, writing, math, science, and social studies. Used for exiting LEP students into mainstream classes. Students must score in the 40th percentile on reading. All students in Texas must pass the 11th grade TAAS to graduate from high school. For more information contact The Psychological Corporation, Order Service Center, P.O. Box 839954, San Antonio, TX 78283-3954.

C-ESL Guide No. 9

Guidelines: Selecting Materials

At present, there are relatively few published materials designed for content-based teaching of English as a second language. These guidelines, therefore, describe an "ideal" which can serve as a point of reference for evaluating and selecting textbooks from among the materials that are available. The more of these features a textbook contains, the more suitable it will be for content-ESL.

While it is more efficient to use a textbook which already contains these features, nevertheless, it will probably always be necessary for teachers to do some adapting and supplementing of existing materials. Content-ESL courses need to be compatible with local curriculum frameworks. Moreover, student needs vary from year to year. These criteria can also serve as guidelines for adapting materials to meet local requirements. For further guidelines on the adapting of materials, see C-ESL Guide No. 10.

1. The scope and sequence of the textbook should include, at a minimum, both content objectives and language objectives. In addition, it may also include plans for the teaching of learning strategies and higher order thinking skills.

2. Materials should be appropriate to your students' age and grade level. They should not "water down" the content, nor take a remedial approach. Instead, they should present substantive concepts from the subject matter field. Carefully selected authentic materials (excerpts from subject matter textbooks, appropriate literature, newspaper articles, etc.) may be used for motivation as well as for providing experience with the kinds of materials used in mainstream courses.

3. Adequate support should be provided to compensate for gaps in the students' cognitive and linguistic resources. Planned re-entry of topics ensures that concepts are introduced in more readily understood "chunks" and then reinforced and elaborated in subsequent treatments. At the same time, the language needed to discuss each concept is reviewed and expanded. Where necessary, comprehension can be supported and reinforced through techniques such as demonstrations, experiments and other hands-on activities, and use of graphics (timelines, semantic webs, Venn diagrams, mapping, graphing, etc.).

4. Textual material should be clearly written. There should be a consistent mechanism for identifying and defining key concepts. Good examples, which students can relate to their own experience, help to make abstract concepts more accessible.

5. The textbook should use the physical appearance of the pages to help clarify and reinforce the content. Purposeful use of layout and typography reflects the logical structure of the content. Visuals (photos, drawings, graphs, charts, tables) provide context and enhance understanding. Avoid textbooks with a "busy" page design--several columns on a page and/or an abundance of sidebars. Such a design can distract students' attention from the core material.

6. Materials should provide a purpose for using the language which goes beyond mere drill. Students should feel that they are learning new information or sharing something they know. They should want to express their opinions and respond to the opinions of others. Language should be used as a tool for carrying out meaningful tasks. Follow-up exercises should lead students to relate the content to their own experience.

7. Activities should include multiple opportunities for working in pairs or in small groups. In peer interaction, students are better able to process the content at their own pace, and they have more opportunities to produce extended discourse. They can sometimes play the role of "senior partner" in peer exchanges, initiating discussion and posing questions, as well as responding to the initiatives of others. This contrasts with a teacher-fronted class in which the teacher does most of the talking and students are

expected to respond briskly and with appropriate short answers as they are called upon.

8. There should be questions and activities that advance the students' cognitive development. In keeping with the current across-the-curriculum efforts to help students think more clearly and logically, materials should require students to reason, solve problems, and make decisions. There should be practice in analyzing, inferencing, predicting, and hypothesizing. Students should be led to monitor and evaluate their own thinking, to assess their knowledge, and to determine what else they need to learn.

9. In a content-ESL textbook, the scope and sequence of the language topics usually follow from the scope and sequence of the objectives for the content matter. Nevertheless, the materials should anticipate the language functions needed to carry out the content-related activities. Adequate examples should be provided of the vocabulary and sentence patterns for such functions as describing cause and effect, making comparisons and contrasts, giving directions, stating conclusions, and the like.

10. It should be possible to teach the required features of the ESL curriculum. Check the language objectives for any gaps that will need supplemental material.

It is not likely that you will find a textbook that meets all these criteria. Having chosen the best published materials available, it may still be necessary to form teams of ESL and content teachers to supplement the materials so that they meet the needs of their students. Another possibility is to use a bank of materials--a core text supplemented with class sets of other textbooks, and with simple reference materials such as learner's dictionaries (including picture dictionaries), short readers treating basic concepts in the field, and maps, wall charts, and other visual aids. Teachers can also encourage the use of trade books, magazines, and newspapers.

C-ESL Guide No. 10

Guidelines: Adapting Material

Adapting material is largely a matter of simplifying the language of a text without distorting or diluting its meaning. Since all second language learners have developed cognitively, and many have been educated to grade level in one language or another, there is no need to simplify the text's content. Rather, the aim is to make the material more accessible by eliminating a few linguistic features that impede comprehension. In some cases, you will also want to add language that clarifies the passage, and in some you will have to reformulate the sentences to make them clearer. The material that results has two purposes: it reinforces what the students have already encountered in an oral presentation, and it provides a bridge for their reading of linguistically more complex material in the area.

While few teachers have enough time to adapt a lot of material for their students, most can spare the time needed to adapt short passages that encapsulate a lesson's main ideas or some aspect of those ideas that requires careful understanding. These guidelines are intended for those teachers who want to create a file of such passages over the course of a year--in other words, to adapt and recycle passages from time to time to strengthen their students' grasp of the course's content. Though the process of material adaptation may seem complicated at first, it is relatively easy once you become fluent in following the strategy outlined below.

Selecting the Passage

1. **Make it relevant.** Be sure to select a passage that bears some relevance to material you have already covered in class. Material that is only tangentially related may confuse and turn off students.

2. **Keep it short.** Don't try to take on a whole chapter or even necessarily a large chunk of a single chapter. Usually 1-3 paragraphs are enough to give students the help they need.

3. **Locate visual support.** In many cases, there are illustrations, graphs, or graphic organizers in the source text that can be copied and incorporated in the adapted version. In some cases, you will have to find visual support in other sources. They will aid general comprehension by giving the passage a context and reminding readers of the content they have already encountered. In many cases, the whole adaptation can be organized around graphic organizers like semantic webs or flow charts.

Analyzing the Passage

4. **Analyze the content.** Quickly jot down the main ideas in the passage. In some cases, it is helpful to outline or summarize the text before you adapt it. In any case, you need to extract its essence so that the overall shape of what you will produce is clear. You also need to be clear about its logical structure and the cohesive devices used to hold the passage together.

5. **Underline difficult words.** Quickly identify those words that your students will find difficult. Bear in mind that some technical words are cognate with words in the students' native languages--that is, they will have the same origin, appear similar, and overlap in meaning. Therefore, you don't need to find substitutes for such words because the students will quickly grasp their meanings. Since, however, not all languages are cognate with English, many such words will still have to be adapted.

Adapting the Passage

6. **Write shorter sentences.** Make the sentences shorter. Once you are satisfied that they are as short as you can possibly get them, try to make them a little shorter.

   For example:

   It is commonly assumed that stars result from the astronomical condensation of massive clouds of cosmic dust and hydrogen gas, which is the lightest and most abundant element in the universe.

   This can be broken down into two shorter sentences:

   It is commonly assumed that stars result from the astronomical condensation of massive clouds of cosmic dust and hydrogen gas. Hydrogen is the lightest and most abundant element in the universe.

   How can you break these sentences down further?

7. **Simplify the vocabulary.** Whenever possible, incorporate words that the students have already used in their classes. New technical words are especially important.

8. **Simplify the grammar.** For example, use the active voice (*The doctor set the patient's leg*) instead of the passive voice (*The patient's leg was set by the doctor*). Also, use simple tenses whenever possible and avoid adverbs like *hardly* and phrases like *whenever possible* or *regardless of the answer*.

9. **Rework the sentence entirely, if necessary.** In many cases, changing the source sentence in a superficial way is not enough. In that case, write a new sentence, but be sure to preserve the meaning of the original version. In some cases, extraneous material can be eliminated. The passage can also be broken down into more paragraphs.

10. **Add additional language for clarification.** For example, a simple example or a rephrasing makes the meaning clearer than it would otherwise be. You may also want to incorporate background information that will help the students grasp the overall meaning.

11. **Don't be afraid to repeat words.** Though we tend to avoid repetitions in formal prose, students can often benefit more from repetition than from the introduction of new, unknowable words.

12. **Use cohesive devices (e.g., then, such, first, however, it, also).** Words like these give the reader clues as to the structure of the text as a whole. They help students understand the logical relationships among elements. Therefore, they are critical to the students' general comprehension.

On the next page is a sample passage from a science text. As you can see right off, it would be much too difficult for most students who are still acquiring English as a second language. Following the steps outlined above, see if you can adapt this passage for use with such students. A possible adaptation follows the sample passage.

Sample Passage

The Life of a Star

It is commonly assumed that stars result from the astronomical condensation of massive clouds of cosmic dust and hydrogen gas, which is the lightest and most abundant element in the universe. Since there are many such clouds around, and there is no lack of hydrogen, the process of star formation out of interstellar matter is as natural in space as snow is on earth. Its catalyst is gravity, which according to Isaac Newton's theory of universal gravitation, causes all bodies to attract each other in proportion to their mass and distance from each other. Thus, the hydrogen and dust particles in these enormous clouds are drawn together and gradually consolidate. Eventually, that is, this agglutinative tendency results in a mass that is held together by gravitation: as the cloud implodes, it separates itself from the residual hydrogen and dust in the area. Over time, the cloud will then shrink in size as its core increases in temperature. If the nascent star's mass is sufficiently dense, the core will become so hot as to cause a nuclear reaction, in which case the body achieves stardom.

All stars are classified with reference to their brightness and temperature, but their longevity depends on their mass at birth. Once all the hydrogen has been consumed, for example, the core collapses, hydrogen fusion begins to feed on the star's outer mass, radiant energy is released, and a red giant is born. Once all nuclear energy has been exhausted, the star itself collapses, and a densely packed star called a white dwarf results. As the process continues, the star collapses to the neutron stage, the star's electrons are absorbed into its atomic nucleus, and surface explosions occur. The result is the ephemeral brilliance of a supernova.

Possible Adaptation

There is a lot of hydrogen in space, and there is a lot of dust. Sometimes, hydrogen and dust come together to form stars. What pulls them together? Astronomers think that gravity does. As you know, gravity acts like a magnet. For example, if you throw a ball into the air, gravity will pull it back to earth. In the same way, gravity pulls hydrogen and dust together. If there is a lot of dust, gravity is more powerful. If there is a lot of hydrogen nearby, gravity is even more powerful. In those conditions, stars are born. Little by little, some of the dust and some of the hydrogen form a large ball. Then, the ball shrinks, its core gets hotter, and gravity holds it all together. A star is forming. As it becomes denser, the core gets hotter. When it gets very hot, a nuclear reaction occurs. Now you have a star.

There are many types of stars: red giants, white dwarfs, and supernovae are examples. All live a long time, but some live longer than others. The densest ones last longest because they take longer to burn up. When the core burns up and disappears, hydrogen starts to burn up the star's shell. This makes the shell glow with a helium fire, and the star is called a red giant. When all the nuclear energy burns up, the star is called a white dwarf. White dwarfs are very, very dense. Then, the star's particles turn atomic, and the star explodes. The exploding star is called a supernova. It shines very brightly, and then it disappears. The life of a star is over.

C-ESL Guide No. 11

Guidelines: Choosing Techniques

Guidelines: Choosing Techniques

Many teachers who work with LEP students adopt techniques that enable them to make key concepts comprehensible while accommodating the students' need for language reinforcement. One general rule is to build in time for students to elucidate what they have learned orally and to interact with peers while performing a task--in short, to talk about the content (Goldenberg, 1991). This will help them develop the academic language they need for continued success at school. Beyond that, students also need to query the teacher and each other about the subject matter, and they will need informal feedback on their performance from time to time. Much of the feedback that occurs in classes is at the level of general comprehension and communicative interaction: students learn to clarify and repair their utterances in a variety of ways when they are not fully understood.

In a sense, once students have mastered these basics, they begin to take control of the process--to participate spontaneously in small groups, to raise questions in class, and to seek additional information from the teacher. As students begin to assume an active role in the class, and participate fully in classroom discourse, they are likely to learn more rapidly, show improvement in assessments, and feel better about themselves as students. But they will never reach that stage of achievement if they are not invited to participate verbally in class. Here are some techniques teachers use to promote that outcome.

For Presentation

1. **Simplify your language**. Spend some time observing a language teacher and discussing with her how you can speak simply without distorting the message. In general, this entails using simpler syntax and vocabulary and making fewer cultural references. Monitor your output: you might want to tape record a lesson, for example.

2. **Speak in a normal tone at a normal rate**. When we speak normally, we observe rules of pronunciation (e.g., rules involving reduction, assimilation, elision, juncture, intonation, and stress) that students absorb unconsciously via example. When we speak slowly or too loud, we destroy this information and often confuse students.

3. **Be demonstrative**. Use gestures, facial expressions, pictures, realia, whatever will get your point across. In science class, for example, students often grasp the principle more quickly if you perform an experiment than if you ask them to read about it. In many classes, charts, diagrams, and graphic organizers such as semantic webs are often useful.

4. **Adapt the material**. Don't expect LEP students to be able to read regular grade-appropriate texts without help. Three common ways to approach a reading are to ask the students what they already know about the topic, to present the content beforehand in an oral mode, and to ask them to study peripheral clues (e.g., illustrations, sub-headings) before they decode the passage. Another is to prepare an advanced organizer for students to review before working with the passage itself. It may be necessary to simplify the language of the passage (without watering it down, of course; see C-ESL Guide No. 10 for guidelines for adapting and simplifying material).

5. **Draw on the students' knowledge.** Always assume that the students know something about a topic before its presentation in class. Many, for example, may have been exposed to the concept elsewhere in another language. Asking them what they already know, or having them pool their resources in a brainstorming session, will help them define the limits of the topic, grasp its essence quickly, relate it to previously acquired knowledge or experience, and reduce the sense of inadequacy students sometimes feel when confronted with the language (see C-ESL Guide No. 1). A further advantage of such preliminary discussion is that you can uncover misconceptions or misunderstandings (if they exist) before beginning a new topic.

6. **Review frequently.** Devise ways of smuggling review into the process that aren't obvious or clumsy. You might, for example, ask students to rephrase or summarize what you have said, or you might give them a chart to fill in as they work in pairs or small groups. Avoid constant repetition.

In Interaction

1. **Listen carefully.** Train yourself to listen carefully to students, and always allow a student enough time to finish what she is saying. Show that you are listening carefully by paraphrasing what a student has said and asking her if your paraphrase is correct. Once this technique is established as a matter of routine, you will discover that students pay closer attention to you and each other than is commonly the case.

2. **Give them enough time to respond.** If you ask a question, be patient with the student who is responding. As long as it doesn't disrupt the flow of the class, you might ask another student to paraphrase or extend what the first student said. Never force a student to speak: students typically need time to sort out the basic rules of classroom discourse, and they will speak up when they are ready to do so.

3. **Respond to the message.** Avoid correcting the students' mistakes in English as long as they are comprehensible. They will not benefit from this intervention, and they will eventually find their own pathways through error-ridden interlanguage to enhanced performance. In other words, their errors will gradually fall away in and of themselves through continued exposure, though it may take time. If you are not sure what the student is saying, tell him so as gently as possible ("José, I'm not sure what you mean. Can you say it again?"). More advanced students will ask for correction, but not until they are cognitively ready to absorb that information.

4. **Avoid interpretation.** That is, assuming that the student has been placed appropriately, avoid asking her to repeat an utterance in the native language and having another student or an aide interpret it for you in English. This technique will only reinforce the student's sense that she is incapable of doing well in the class and, specifically, that expressing herself in English is beyond her capabilities. You will also lose the students in the class who don't know the native language. (There are exceptions to this advice of course, for instance in an emergency or personal conflict situation.)

5. **Paraphrase.** Paraphrasing shows the student that you are trying to understand his message, it provides feedback on form without drawing attention to itself (i.e., you will rephrase what the student has said in standard English), and it gives other students in the class a second pass at the message in case they missed it the first time. More importantly, however, paraphrasing can have a positive effect on the atmosphere since it communicates the subliminal message that you are really interested in what the student has to say.

6. **Avoid overreacting.** Always remember that you are not at the center of the process; the student and her interaction with the content are. Therefore, avoid setting yourself up as the source of all reinforcement, whether positive or negative, by either congratulating or condemning students, that is, by dominating the discourse, even by dominating it with good will and high good humor. There are many subtle ways to respond to students that show that you have understood what they have said, and that you accept it, without taking over.

References

Goldenberg, C. (1991). Instructional conversations and their classroom application. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

C-ESL Guide No. 12

Guidelines: Learning Cooperatively

C-ESL Guide No. 12

Guidelines: Learning Cooperatively

A Definition

Small group work has been a feature of ESL teaching since the mid-1970s; it has to some extent been overtaken in recent years by a general interest in cooperative learning. Cooperative learning stems primarily from the work of Kagan, D. W. and R. T. Johnson, and Slavin; teachers who are interested in knowing more about this approach are urged to look at their published work. (See References at the end of this guide.) Although definitions of cooperative learning vary, most would agree on three aspects:

1. Cooperative learning requires students in small groups, usually heterogeneous groups, to perform a collaborative task. That is, they have to work together to accomplish a common purpose: simply having a discussion or doing a homework assignment, for example, does not qualify as performing a collaborative task. This notion of a collaborative enterprise is key to this approach.

2. Cooperative tasks are typically short-term efforts, frequently tasks that can be accomplished in a single class period (though long-term tasks are also possible). When using a cooperative approach, many teachers impose a time limit on the activity because it helps students to structure their work.

3. Cooperative activities always have a definite outcome or product. This may take the form of a report to the whole class or, in the case of a jigsaw activity, the sharing of information with members of other groups. Whatever its form, the outcome is specified at the outset, and all of the group's effort is directed toward its achievement.

A Rationale

There are many reasons why the cooperative approach has attracted so much attention, and there are many reasons why it is especially suitable for LEP students who crave opportunities to practice the language in a content-relevant fashion. Here are five.

1. **Interaction**. Cooperative learning requires students, and to some extent teachers and students, to interact. This means that students have more time than is customary to talk to each other and, more to the point, to talk to each other about topics of real interest to them. In the process, they learn the language of polite interruption, they learn how to express a point of view in a relatively short period of time, and they learn how to listen. Therefore, students need to be reminded often that they must contribute to the general effort, listen to each other, help a teammate who asks for help, and turn to the teacher only as a last resort.

2. **Interdependence**. Since the students are working together to accomplish a common objective, they learn to depend on each other. Typically, the group dynamic is such that each member assumes a slightly different role, and the collective enterprise is successful only to the extent that each performs her role successfully. Among other things, in the process, they receive feedback on their output in a comparatively nonthreatening way, and they hear classmates model the language and use it purposefully. Learning to act interdependently is also beneficial beyond the classroom in the workplace, where many jobs use a team approach.

3. **Processing**. Throughout, the students process language that is directly related to achievement in the content area. In other words, they gradually build confidence in the use of language, specifically academic language (CALP--see C-ESL Guide No. 1), that is needed for success in subsequent learning, while also learning the language of social interaction that goes along with it. Unless they develop the capacity to seek help, raise questions, express doubt, disagree, paraphrase, and negotiate--skills that are naturally developed in cooperative activities, they are unlikely to be as successful as they can be in academic settings.

4. **Competitiveness**. Most practitioners of cooperative techniques see their uncompetitive nature as being one of their chief virtues. The line many educators take is essentially that U.S. education is too individualistic and competitive, that that tendency is particularly problematic for LEP students, and that activities that engender a collaborative spirit are more likely to support students' learning by widening the sources of input and deepening the individual's commitment to the process. While the whole notion of study groups, quality circles, and the like for LEP students is compelling, it should also be noted that cooperative learning does not eliminate competition entirely: though individual competition is mediated by group participation, many cooperative activities still involve competition among groups.

5. **Accountability**. While the focus in all of this is the group, the fact is that no group can function until its members' roles are in some fashion differentiated. In cooperative learning, each member of the team is expected to pull his own weight; if he does not, the group as a whole must devise a strategy for dealing with his reduced participation. Similarly, if one member of the group dominates the work of the others, the group as a whole must decide how to redress the imbalance. Therefore, though cooperative learning stresses the whole group's function, it inevitably addresses issues of individual participation since its collective achievement is directly related to individual accountability.

Grouping Strategies

There are many ways to group students for cooperative activity. Here is one.

1. Rank order your students according to achievement from highest to lowest. Use pretests, recent tests, grades, an estimate of potential, or your best guess.

2. Select your first team. Identify the top achiever, the bottom achiever, and two students in the middle. Assign them to one team unless they are all of one gender, the group does not mirror the ethnic composition of the class, they are all enemies, they are best friends, or they are frequently absent as a group. If one or more of these conditions is met, move one middle achiever in the rank order of the whole class up or down and reconstitute your first team.

3. Select the rest of the teams, each one in turn from the reduced class list. If you wind up with one group that contains fewer than four members, assign each student in the group to another group, with the result that you will have some groups of five.

Cooperative Assessment

Grades for cooperative work can be assigned on an individual or group basis. Here are a few simple techniques for both strategies.

Individual Grades. If you would like to adjust the students' individual scores for the group activity, give them bonus points after computing each group's average score on an activity. You may then want

to establish a cutoff for the bonus points, for example, a group average of 85% or better. That is, the team must meet that criterion to get any bonus points whatever. Otherwise, award bonus points without reference to a criterion by using a system like the following.

Average Score	Bonus Points
100	15
90-99	10
80-89	5
70-79	3
60-69	1

Every student in the group receives the same number of bonus points.

Alternatively, you may want to award individual bonus points. This is done on the basis of how far above or below the group average each student falls. In this case, use a system like the following.

Deviation	Bonus Points
More than 10 points below	0
10 points to 1 point below	10
Average to 10 points above	20
More than 10 points above	30

Add up the total number of bonus points for the group and divide by the number of group members to get a team score. Eighteen to 22 bonus points indicates a "great team," 23 or more a "superteam."

Group Grades. In this case, most teachers simply give everyone the group average. Occasionally, you might want to choose one score at random and assign it to the whole group. Infrequently, you may also want to give everyone the lowest score in the group. These somewhat manipulative measures are intended to build group solidarity.

Preparing the Students

Since cooperative learning is a departure from conventional practice, students need some help getting started. Here is a list of skills you may need to reinforce before students embark on a cooperative enterprise -- and frequently thereafter. They should know how to:

1. explain directions
2. offer suggestions
3. help each other without interfering
4. encourage each other
5. paraphrase
6. request a justification
7. extend each other's utterances
8. express emotion
9. resolve conflict
10. criticize each other without giving offense

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Needless to say, reinforcing these sociolinguistic skills is a rather tall order: indeed, any LEP student who has mastered them has gone a long way toward the acquisition of academic language (CALP) and successful integration in the educational process. It may be that the ultimate value of cooperative learning is its structured approach to achievement of that outcome.

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C-ESL Guide No. 13

Guidelines: Teaching Thematically

C-ESL Guide No. 13

Guidelines: Teaching Thematically

Introduction

Integrated curricula are gaining in popularity, and a thematic approach to the structuring of lessons is now widely favored by content area, ESL, and content-ESL teachers alike. For these professionals, thematic units reflect the complexities of the real world by linking areas of study instead of isolating them. Thus, they provide students with a stronger sense of how one area of study is related to another and of how the whole educational enterprise is associated with the world outside the school's walls. They also stimulate the students' interest and achievement by establishing these relationships. Furthermore, their development requires teachers to work creatively and collaboratively. In the process, they often discover disciplinary relationships and common solutions to common problems they never knew existed.

Thematic units typically cover several days', even several weeks', work and sometimes spill over classes as diverse as art, physics, and gym. One example is an elementary unit exploring issues of identity and masks; it encompasses classes in English, in which relevant stories are read, geography, in which ritual practices associated with a variety of cultures are explored, and art, in which the children learn to make masks for each other. Another is a high school unit centering on the physics of reflection and refraction that spreads across math, English, and physical education classes as well as physics.

There are several ways to integrate instruction across the disciplines. Typically, the first step is to identify an overarching theme or organizing principle consistent with the students' language objectives and relevant to a variety of subject matters. Often, students can suggest these themes and tease out the underlying relationships for themselves in a brainstorming session. While they are doing that, they are assuming responsibility for the curriculum and thereby empowering themselves as learners. Thereafter, as a result of this investment, they are likely to have a deeper commitment to the learning process and achieve more.

Here are the steps most teachers follow in developing these units--and a word or two about potential pitfalls.

The Process

According to Jacobs (1989), there are four steps teachers commonly follow.

1. Selecting a Theme

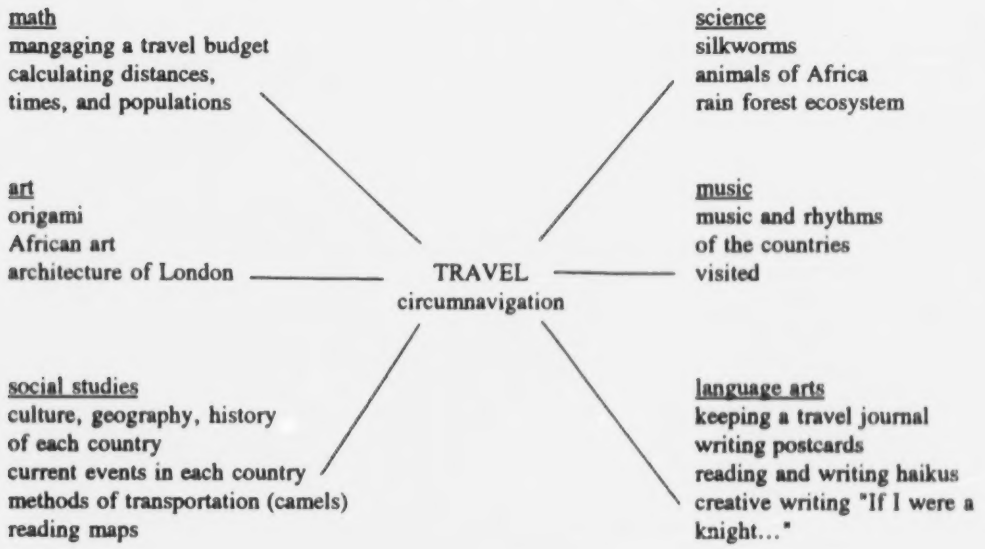
After consulting students, teachers select an organizing center or main topic--light, revolution, patterns, and flight, for example, have been used successfully. The concept should be broad enough to encompass the subject areas involved, but it should not be so broad as to preclude substantive treatment in all of these classes. In other words, it should apply as integrally as possible to the subject areas to be covered.

2. Brainstorming Associations

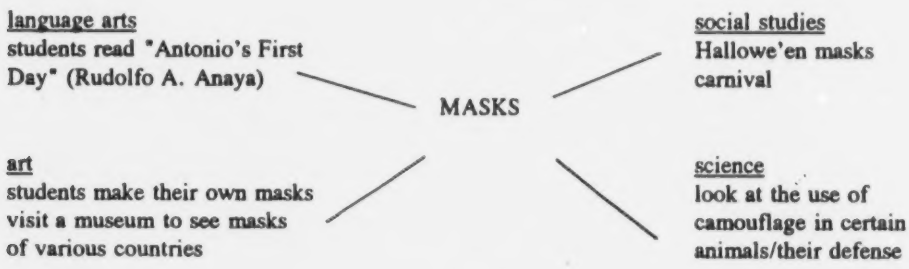
After an organizing center has been chosen, teachers (and frequently students) spend time thinking about relevant topics while bearing each discipline's distinct contribution in mind. Sometimes, it is best for everyone to work individually before engaging in a joint brainstorm. This preliminary step will ensure that the group effort is maximally productive. Once collective brainstorming begins, few limits should be imposed, so that a lot of ideas will emerge. You can always eliminate some later (Osborn, 1963).

Once a few ideas are on the table, your job is to sift them, eliminate some, and elaborate the unit in detail. For this purpose, an organizing wheel is sometimes helpful (see below). Always bear in mind that the treatment of the subject area should not be cut or manipulated to fit the organizing theme; rather, the best organizing centers are those that promote a natural integration of disparate subject matter areas.

Here is a sample thematic unit in the form of an organizing wheel. The unit is the work of Jennie Choy and Elaine To at Benjamin Franklin Middle School in San Francisco. It started with a brainstorming session on travel and emerged eventually as a thematic unit called the Circumnavigation Project, an interdisciplinary unit that integrates social studies, language arts, math, and science. Students spend an entire school year working their way through the material and its associated activities (see *Content-ESL Across the USA: A Practical Guide* for more information on this unit).



Another sample thematic unit takes the theme of masks as its organizing center. This theme has been developed in a variety of ways by elementary teachers in various parts of the country. The version described here takes about two weeks to complete.



3. Writing Questions

The aim of this stage is to organize each subject area by defining its scope (how much it will cover) and sequence (in what order it will cover that much). One way to do this is to set some limits on what will be covered in class before you begin lesson planning and activity design. That is, make a list of questions as a framework for lessons around the organizing center. For example, one group of elementary teachers and students encountered during the study chose flight as their organizing center. Once that step had been taken, they came up with these four guiding questions.

1. What flies?
2. How and why do things in nature fly?
3. What has been the impact of flight on human beings?
4. What is the future of flight?

Using these questions, the group then established the scope and sequence for the entire unit (Jacobs, 1989). That is, they decided what to include and what to exclude, and they began mapping out the order in which this material would be presented and exploited.

4. Developing Activities

As activities are developed, it is useful to categorize them in terms of the cognitive demands they make on students. To do that, many teachers still favor Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). No one expects you to identify activities for every cell in this table; rather, the taxonomy does give you a snapshot of the activities you have selected. That is, it reveals their overall configuration and their cumulative effect. Here, the unit on flight is broken down in Bloomian fashion.

	Processes					
UNIT: Flight	KNOWLEDGE	COMPREHENSION	APPLICATION	ANALYSIS	SYNTHESIS	EVALUATION
1. How do birds fly?	Identify birds' flight patterns	Recall principles of bird flight	Chart the movements of bird flight	Compare to man-made flying machines		
2. How and why do people fly?	List of principles of aerodynamics	Translate these principles to: balloon jet hang-glider	Illustrate the principles as they apply to space flight	What are the historical reasons for change in flying preferences? Write in essay form.	Create a new flying machine in blue print	Appraise the machine's effectiveness
		Read the biographies of Lindbergh and Earhart	List modern-day counter-parts to these fliers	Discuss similarities, differences between past and modern flight heroes	Write a biography of a fictional flying hero of the future	

In classes designed for LEP students, it is critical to pay attention to the **linguistic** demands of these activities as a subset of their cognitive load. So that learning will not depend exclusively on the students' language

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proficiency, for example, a variety of instructional experiences--written, spoken, drawn, danced, filmed, debated --are commonly planned, and student activity is typically stimulated by means of a variety of media. Similarly, small-group dynamics should vary. For example, many teachers plan large-group, small-group, and pair work, as well as individual work. In addition, word lists, graphic organizers, and semantic webs are often used in optimally effective classes for these students, as a cursory glance at commercially available books targeted at second language learners will reveal. In short, any strategy that makes the content clearer without overwhelming your presentation and that lightens the students' need to process input aurally is likely to be helpful.

More importantly, however, teachers should also simplify and adapt their presentation of material and the written material itself whenever that is feasible. This packet contains guides called "Choosing Techniques" (No. 11) and "Adapting Material" (No. 10) to help you do that. In addition, Short (1991) and others have identified strategies for simplifying and adapting materials. Here's a sample.

- Decide what students need to learn and reduce non-essential details.
- Focus on concrete references first, then develop abstract concepts.
- Relate information to students' experiences as often as possible.
- Represent the information visually.

These four simple prescriptions, if followed, can lead to a more satisfactory experience with LEP classes, whether a thematic structure is adopted or not. They are crucial in thematically organized classes because in such classes the focus is off language and on content much of the time. Therefore, the teacher needs to be alert to both verbal and non-verbal methods for getting her message across and retaining the students' attention.

Conclusion

While teaching thematically may seem daunting at first, careful planning and close collaboration, though time-consuming, can pay off in the long run. As many classroom practitioners can attest, not only does a thematic approach make your job easier by attracting and holding the students' attention, it also provides you with material tailored to your students' needs that can be used again and again. Furthermore, as many will tell you, the development of thematic units and their refinement through repeated use can make your teaching more stimulating by tapping your reservoir of creative energy, putting you in touch with colleagues, and giving you a measure of control over curricular design.

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C-ESL Guide No. 14

Guidelines: Planning Lessons

C-ESL Guide No. 14

Guidelines: Planning Lessons

Since teaching language and content simultaneously is not easy, many teachers find it best to experiment with a few lesson plans before adopting the approach wholesale. Sample lesson plans appear in C-ESL Guide No. 15. Since all of the plans included there were adapted from plans in actual use, their formats vary, but, collectively, they give the reader a sense of how varied content-ESL teaching is across the United States. All of the plans follow a few general guidelines, which are outlined here.

In general, content-ESL classes have dual objectives: they ask the students to work on language **and** content. Therefore, conventional classes in which only the presentation of material is modified to accommodate the students' language learning needs may not qualify. Nor, for that matter, would conventional grammar classes. Rather, the trick is to create activities that require the students to practice the language while they are primarily concerned with content.

Such lessons, like most lessons, can be divided into four phases: a motivating warm-up, the presentation of new material, practice in the application of this material, and review and/or formal assessment. For example, the third elementary school lesson ("Air") in C-ESL Guide No. 15 opens with the teacher asking the students to touch objects in a plastic bag (motivating warm-up), moves through activities designed to make the students aware of the atmosphere and its function (presentation and practice), and concludes with a write-up of the experiment (review). Throughout, the students are asked to discover elementary physical principles for themselves and to respond to a lot of directed questioning that guides their dawning knowledge of these principles. Finally, in writing up the experiments they have performed, they are asked to recycle the language they have used orally in summarizing the whole series of activities. Thus, they acquire a deeper understanding of the lesson's content while reinforcing their proficiency in the language across modalities (e.g., speaking and writing).

Here are some more pointers.

1. **Identify the potential pitfalls.** Since you know your students, and you know what they have covered in your class, you are best situated to identify problems they are likely to encounter. In some cases, they will have trouble with new vocabulary. In others, the propositional syntax associated with the activity (e.g., common clauses like *we don't think that, it is unlikely that, our conclusion is that, it seems that*, etc.) may prove difficult. In others, the content itself may carry the students off into unfamiliar territory.

2. **Prepare the students for the main task.** Once you have a fix on the potential problems, try to think of ways you can help the students surmount them while performing class activities. There are essentially two ways for you to do that: you can focus on the problems in a concentrated fashion by, for example, having the students do a contextualized exercise, or you can structure the whole sequence of activities in such a way as to require systematic repetition and review. For example, in the "Air" lesson, the teacher's constant use of *what*-questions directs the students' attention to underlying principles while also requiring rehearsal of question-answer frames.

3. **Put the students on task.** After you have decided how to prepare the students for the lesson that awaits them, design activities that require them to do something even while you present new material. For example, you might want to distribute a list of five statements about the topic (which may also contain key vocabulary, by the way), then you go over these sentences with the students before you

introduce the new material. Tell them to decide, while they are listening to your presentation, whether each statement is true or false. In that way, you are providing a focused listening exercise while asking students to absorb new material critically.

4. **Be concrete.** As we have indicated elsewhere in this series, make use of realia, diagrams, illustrations, lab equipment, and the like in presenting new material. In general, students are more likely to absorb new concepts inductively from an example or a demonstration than from a series of abstract propositions.

5. **Do listening/speaking before reading/writing.** Build in time for the students to talk as well as listen, and give them an opportunity to talk about what they have learned before you ask them to read about it. Methodologists increasingly see the value of "instructional conversations" (see C-ESL Guide No. 1) for LEP students--among other things, such conversations give them a chance to talk through what they have learned and to ask as well as answer questions. Once they have clarified the context in such activities, confronting the text, deciphering it, and drafting summaries or journal entries become easier. By the way, have your students write freely, singly or in groups, as much as possible.

6. **Integrate work on the language.** As suggested above, insinuating language activities is largely a matter of anticipating the students' problems and devising activities that require repeated attention to problem areas. For example, you may want the students to compare marriage customs in China and the United States, and you might decide to use a Venn diagram as suggested in "The River Merchant's Wife: A Letter" (the first high school lesson plan in C-ESL Guide No. 15). You may decide to work on adverbial *while*-clauses in the process (e.g., "While marriages are sometimes arranged in China, they are almost never arranged in the United States."). With enough examples and encouragement, most students simply fall into this pattern without having to pay much attention, if any, to the formal properties of the structure.

7. **Maximize student-student interaction.** LEP students need to spend as much time as possible practicing the language--and, incidentally, getting the lesson's key concepts straight and comfortably encoded in the appropriate language. Therefore, take advantage of the presence of other students to create opportunities for them to talk to each other. Show them how much confidence you have in them as learners by letting them field each other's questions. See C-ESL Guide No. 12 for suggestions for collaborative work in small groups.

8. **Pay attention to form and function.** Although content teachers cannot be expected to do the job of an ESL teacher, and little attention is now paid to form in any case in ESL classes, there are a lot of reasons for responding to, and even commenting on, utterances that more advanced students make in class--that is to say, giving corrective feedback regarding the form and/or function of those utterances. As for making corrections in the form, one of the best ways is to paraphrase what a student has said (see C-ESL Guide No. 11). As for function (i.e., an utterance's appropriateness in context), the best way is sometimes the most direct. Tell the student that, while what he has said is understandable, it is not what a native speaker would say in the same circumstances; then express the idea more appropriately for him. In any case, the more advanced students (in terms of language) will often ask teachers for feedback on form and function, particularly in the context of a writing exercise.

9. **Use a variety of stimuli.** Consider, for example, how you can get key concepts across by taking a demonstration approach (i.e., by demonstrating what you want students to learn in an experiment or small group activity). Bring objects into the classroom that can be used for that purpose and put them to use. Have the students undertake projects that clarify these concepts and demonstrate their grasp of them. Use a variety of reading material, including relevant material for pleasure reading, trade books,

magazine articles, adapted material, etc. In short, create a stimulating environment in which student interests can be awakened and pursued productively.

10. **Set time aside for summary and review.** Needless to say, it is always useful to tie off what is covered in a lesson, and to do that in every class as a matter of routine. Sometimes, simple discussion is enough; sometimes, a more structured activity (e.g., "You've identified the parts of a sea bass. Here's a picture of a trout. See if you can name its parts.") is needed. In any case, it is important for the students to come up with the information with minimal prompting. Many teachers ask the students to make journal entries at the end of every class. Others ask students to mention one new thing they have learned during the lesson. Some give quizzes. Whatever form it takes, the end-of-lesson review is a good way to remind students of what they have encountered and to set them up for subsequent work.

One good way to understand the whole content-ESL process is to simply try it out. The best way to do that is to create a lesson plan along the lines suggested here, test it out, refine it, and test it out again.

C-ESL Guide No. 15

Sample Lesson Plans

Elementary School:

Language arts
Mathematics and language arts
Science and language arts
Thinking skills and language arts

Middle School:

Language arts
U.S. history and language arts
Mathematics and language arts
Science and language arts

High School:

Language arts
Science and language arts
Mathematics and language arts
U.S. government and language arts

Sample Lesson Plans

Elementary School Lesson Plan 1

Title Metaphor

Content Language arts

Grade Level Fifth grade

Learning outcomes:

reading a poem that uses metaphor
learning the meaning of metaphor
discussing the use of metaphor
writing a poem

Vocabulary:

metaphor
(see attached poem for unfamiliar words)

Materials:

"Dreams" by Langston Hughes (see attached)

Procedure:

1. Explain what a metaphor is and why writers use it.

2. Pass out copies of "Dreams" by Langston Hughes. Read it aloud. Have students read it silently, and go over vocabulary items that are unfamiliar.

3. Discuss the effect of the poem with the students. Ask them:
   What does the poem mean to you?
   How does it make you feel?

4. Ask students to locate the metaphors in the poem. Ask them:
   What is the purpose of the metaphors?
   How could you say the same thing without using metaphors?
   Do you think that metaphors make the image more powerful?

5. Ask the class to give examples of other metaphors.

6. Have students write their own poems, using the title as a theme (e.g., the world, football, the class, war, love, etc.). Using Hughes' poem as a model for their own, they must include at least two metaphors in their own poem.

Dreams

Hold fast to dreams
For if dreams die
Life is a broken-winged bird
That cannot fly.

Hold fast to dreams
For when dreams go
Life is a barren field
Frozen with snow.

--Langston Hughes

Background information for the teacher

Langston Hughes was born on February 1, 1902 in Joplin, Missouri. He was raised by his mother and his grandmother because his parents separated soon after his birth.

Around the world, Hughes is recognized as a poet, playwright, novelist, and short story writer. He often wrote about his experiences as a black man, and served as an interpreter of black life in America to the rest of the world. He was often called the "bard of Harlem" because of his attachment to that place and also because of the important role he played in the Harlem Renaissance.

Hughes traveled to many parts of the world, including Mexico, Africa, Europe, Japan, Haiti, and the Soviet Union. He worked as a newspaper correspondent during the Spanish Civil War.

Hughes died in New York City on May 22, 1967.

Source: *The New Encyclopedia Britannica.*

Elementary School Lesson Plan 2

Title	Measuring
Content	Mathematics and language arts
Grade Level	Kindergarten or first grade
Author	Nan Allison Langley Park--McCormick Elementary School Hyattsville, MD

Learning outcomes:

using a technique for measuring
comparing lengths/heights

Vocabulary:

measure
taller, tallest, shorter, shortest, the same height

Materials:

drawing paper and crayons
balls of yarn
scissors
masking tape or Scotch tape

Procedure:

1. Working individually, each child draws and colors a picture of himself or herself.

2. In pairs, each child measures partner's height with yarn and cuts yarn at the proper length.

3. Children attach yarn for their height to the bottom of their own picture.

4. Pictures are hung side by side on the wall. Looking at pictures and lengths of yarn, children answer questions such as:

   Who is tallest? shortest?
   Who is taller, Nguyen or Veronica?
   Are Anna and Bill the same height?
   How did we measure?

5. Students then rearrange pictures on the wall in order from tallest to shortest (creating a class pictograph). If desired, the students can line up under the pictures to connect the pictures to the real objects.

Elementary School Lesson Plan 3

Title Air

Content Science and language arts

Grade Level First grade

Author Jennifer Hixson
Urbana School District #116, Multicultural Program
Urbana, IL

Learning outcomes:

discovering properties of air
Air is something.
Air is everywhere, even in some rocks.

Science vocabulary:

air, bubble(s), space, push

ESL vocabulary:

Part I: plastic bag, rocks, water
Part II: blow(ing), glass, straw, inside, outside
Part III: aquarium, glass, paper towel, wet, dry
Part IV: rock, sandstone

Materials:

Part I: plastic bags, rocks, water
Part II: soap bubble solution in small containers, straws
Part III: aquarium, glass, paper towels, water, Scotch tape, cut-off gallon plastic jugs, small glasses
Part IV: aquarium, water, sandstone rock

Procedure for Part I:

1. Show students the empty (and uninflated) plastic bag and have them feel it.

2. Put some rocks in the bag and have students feel it. Ask, "What's in the bag?" Repeat, using water.

3. Wave the bag in the air to put air into it. Again, let students feel the bag. Have them name what is in it.

4. Ask, "Is there air in the hallway, (other parts of the school)?" Divide students into small groups, give each group a plastic bag, and have them collect air around the school. Tell them to hurry back to the classroom with it.

5. Model how to write up the experiment using pictures and words.

Procedure for Part II:

1. Tell students to put their hands on their chests, take a deep breath, and then breathe out. Ask, "What goes in when you breathe in? What goes out when you breathe out?"

2. Distribute the bubble solution and straws. Have students blow bubbles. Ask, "What is a bubble?"

3. Draw a bubble on the chalkboard. Ask, "What's outside the bubble? What's inside?"

4. Have students blow some more bubbles and ask, "What are these bubbles made of?"

5. Have students help you write up the experiment.

Procedure for Part III:

1. Show students the empty glass and the aquarium with water in it. Ask, "What's in the glass?"

2. Crumple a piece of paper towel and tape it to the inside of the bottom of the glass. Ask, "If I hold the glass upside down and put it in the water, will the paper get wet?"

3. Invert the glass and put it into the water. Show students the dry paper and ask, "Why is it dry?"

4. Repeat the demonstration, this time tipping the glass slightly. Ask, "What did you see? What are the bubbles made of? Where did the air come from?"

5. Distribute the cut-off gallon plastic jugs partially filled with water, small glasses, pieces of paper towel, and Scotch tape, and have the students repeat Steps 2 and 3 of the experiment. Write up the experiment with the students.

6. Have the students repeat Step 4. Discuss how the water pushes the air out of the glass, and then write up the experiment with the students.

Procedure for Part IV:

1. Show students the sandstone rock. Ask, "Is there air in this rock?"

2. Put the rock into the aquarium filled with water. Discuss what the students see and why.

3. Write up the experiment with the students.

Elementary School Lesson Plan 4

Title	Classification
Content	Thinking skills and language arts
Grade Level	First through third grade
Author	Adapted from *Oral Language Activities Through Science Discovery* Migrant Education Program Michigan Department of Education

Learning outcomes:

learning how to classify objects according to different properties

Thinking skills vocabulary:

classify, property

ESL vocabulary:

sort into groups
color names: white, black, red, green, blue, etc.
sizes: large, small, medium sized
shapes: round, square, oval, shaped like a (flower, boat, etc.)

Materials:

sets of 20 assorted buttons (one set for each group of students)
buttons in a set should be similar in some properties, different in others

Procedure for Activity 1:

1. Divide students into groups of 4-5, and give each group a set of 20 buttons.

2. Tell the students to sort their buttons into groups in any way they want.

3. Circulate among the groups and, as soon as students have sorted the buttons in one way, ask them: Is there another way that you could sort the buttons?

4. After some of the students have begun to run out of ideas for sorting the buttons, stop the activity and ask one group: How did you decide which group to put a button into? Ask other groups the same question.

5. Gradually elicit the properties of "color," "size," and "shape." Explain that these are "properties" and that they are used to "classify" the buttons (sort them into groups).

Procedure for Activity 2:

1. Using one of the sets of buttons, spread them out so that all the students can see them. Tell them you are thinking of one particular button and you want them to figure out which button it is.

2. Give the students the first clue--one property, e.g., its color. Two students set aside all the buttons that do not have that property.

3. Give the second clue--another property. Two other students eliminate the buttons that do not have the second property.

4. Finally, give the third property. This should eliminate all but one button, thus allowing the students to discover the button you were thinking of.

5. Students can repeat this activity in their groups of 4-5. One student acts as the leader, deciding on a button and giving the clues. The other group members discover which button the leader has chosen.

Application:

Ask the students what other things they might want to classify using the properties of color, size, and shape.

Middle School Lesson Plan 1

Title *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*

Content Language arts

Grade Level Sixth grade

Author Adapted from a lesson by Roxanne Rozales
Joel C. Harris Middle School
San Antonio, TX

Learning outcomes:

reading and discussing a story
identifying the story elements
applying knowledge from the story to another situation

Vocabulary:

ceased, gratitude
story elements (setting, characters, plot, conflict, theme, solution/resolution)

Materials:

Sylvester and the Magic Pebble by William Steig
covered can of pebbles

Procedure:

1. Before class write the following in chart form on the chalkboard.
   Setting
   Characters: Major Minor
   Action or Plot
   Problem or Conflict
   Message or Theme
   Solution or Resolution

2. Divide students into six groups and assign each a story element. At the end of the story, each group will explain the assigned story element.

3. Display the cover of *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*. Ask:
   What will this story be about?
   What part of the story do you already know something about?

4. Read the story aloud and share the pictures. Ask:
   How many times a day do you say, "I wish I had...?"
   What if you could have everything you want?
   If something bad happened to you, how would your family feel?

5. Allow students to discuss the story elements in groups and then list them on the chalkboard.

6. Have students describe Sylvester's pebble. Write the adjectives they use on the chalkboard.

7. Have each group select one pebble from the can, and describe it. One student in each group acts as recorder and notes the adjectives selected.

8. Each student makes a wish and group members take turns writing their wishes. Students discuss their list of wishes and reach a consensus.

9. Students share adjectives and wishes of their group with the rest of the class, and discuss the wishes in terms of the theme of *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*.

Middle School Lesson Plan 2

Title	Causes of the Civil War
Content	U.S. History and language arts
Grade Level	Seventh or eighth grade
Authors	John Sexton, Sally Frekot, Peggy Kidwell, Sandy Giles Nicholas Orem Middle School Hyattsville, MD

This lesson was designed as a follow-up to a unit on the Civil War.

Learning outcomes:

analyzing and synthesizing written source materials
explaining cause and effect

Materials:

students' notes on the causes of the Civil War (from preceding study unit)
sample cartoons (preferably with a historical reference) clipped from newspapers or magazines
blackline drawings of well known comic strip characters
blank cartoon strip with six panels

Procedure:

1. In a warm-up discussion, talk with students about the types of television programs that are watched by younger children (e.g., second graders).

2. Show students sample cartoons, pointing out how the sequence of the panels presents the story line of the cartoon.

3. Students use their notes on causes of the Civil War to write up a presentation in cartoon form that would be appropriate for second graders.

To show what kind of product you may expect, the following is an example of a cartoon produced by a student (language unedited):

Panel 1: The southers states believed that they could make any law they want.
Panel 2: Lincoln who didn't like slavery was elected president.
Panel 3: South Carolina and other states left the union and picked their own government.
Panel 4: Lincoln said he wouldn't let them go.
Panel 5: Confederate forces attacked South Carolina.
Panel 6: This was how the war started.

Middle School Lesson Plan 3

Title Predicting Population Change

Content Mathematics and language arts

Grade Level Sixth grade

Learning outcomes:

using the language of graphs
making graphs
writing about population trends, supported by appropriate graph(s)

ESL vocabulary:

population shift, growth, decline, trend
comparative adjectives
predicting words (may, might, probably, likely to, etc.)
any necessary words from the newspaper article that you will use

Mathematics vocabulary:

percent, will increase/decrease by __%, rate of change
graph words: peak, low point, rise by/to, fall by/to, *x*-axis, *y*-axis

Materials:

a graph of population changes (can be for a country, a region, the world)
newspaper article that presents population statistics of your town or state over at least the last 20 years, for every five years
graph paper

Procedure:

1. Examine a population graph with the students. Discuss its features.
   - What does it show?
   - What does the *x*-axis represent? The *y*-axis?
   - In what year did the population reach a peak? What was the low point?
   - Has the population increased or decreased over the last twenty/ten/five years?
   - In (choose a year), had the population gone up or down compared to (year)?
   - What was the rate of change between (year) and (year)?

2. Have students read an article that gives population growth/decline statistics of your town or state over the past twenty years (or more).

3. Discuss what a graph should look like to present this information.
   - What should we call the graph?
   - What does it show?
   - What should we write along the *x* axis? the *y* axis?

   During the discussion, begin the drawing of a graph on the chalkboard.

4. Have the students work in pairs to complete the graphs.

5. As students work, check to make sure that they are correctly drawing and filling in the graphs.

Further application:

1. Have students write a paragraph predicting future population trends for the city or state over the next twenty years. They must be able to support their predictions, based on past trends, future development, and/or other factors in the community.

2. Have them show their predictions by extending the graph they made in Step 4 above.

Middle School Lesson Plan 4

Title Sensory Perceptions

Content Science and language arts

Grade Level Sixth and seventh grades

Author Adapted from a science lesson
Benjamin Franklin Middle School
San Francisco, CA

Learning objectives:

describing properties detected by looking, feeling, smelling, and tasting
using similes: looks like, tastes like, etc.

Vocabulary:

appearance, aroma, texture, taste
solid, liquid, powdery, dry, hard, soft, wet, sweet, sour, bland, etc.

Materials:

dry split peas, powdered sugar, chocolate syrup, lemon juice
Put a small amount of each in a paper cup. Number of cups needed depends on number of student groups. Four groups of students can share one set of four cups, working with each of the four foods in turn.
worksheets containing table to be completed by students

	Peas	Sugar	Syrup	Juice
Appearance				
Aroma				
Texture				
Taste				
Simile				

Procedure:

1. Divide class into groups of 4-5 students. Give each group a cup containing one of the foods.

2. Ask them to find adjectives to describe the appearance, aroma, texture, and taste of the food. They should fill in the table as they decide on the adjectives, thinking of as many adjectives as they can.

3. After five minutes, each group exchanges their cup with another group. Repeat Step 2 until every group has described all four foods.

4. Debrief the activity by calling on the groups one by one to help you fill in a copy of the table which you have put on the chalkboard.

5. With the students again working in groups, ask them to write a simile for each of the foods. For example, "The sugar feels like ____." "The juice tastes like ___." Call on groups at random to read their similes aloud.

High School Lesson Plan 1

Title	"The River Merchant's Wife: A Letter"
Content	Language arts
Grade Level	Tenth through twelfth grades
Author	Adapted from a lesson by Lydia Stack Newcomer High School San Francisco, CA

Learning outcomes:

reading and discussing two poems
comparing marriage customs in 8th century China and in the contemporary United States
writing a poem

Vocabulary:

poems' vocabulary (see poems attached)
marriage words (marry, bride, groom, etc.)

Materials:

an 8th century Chinese print
two poems (attached)

Procedure:

1. Show the students a Chinese print, preferably from the 8th century A.D. Ask them:
   What can you see here?
   How does the scene make you feel?
   What does the picture tell you about the culture which produced it?

2. Tell the students the title of the poem. Ask them:
   What do you think this poem is about?
   What would you like to know about this topic?
   Why do you think the author chose this title?

3. Read "The River Merchant's Wife" to the students as they follow along. Guide their understanding of the text with questions:
   What will happen now? Why do you think so?
   What would you like to ask (this character)?

4. Divide the students into four groups and ask each group to retell the story from a different point of view: the wife, the husband, the wife's mother-in-law, and the moss.

5. Using a Venn Diagram (two partially overlapping circles), have them compare marriage customs in 8th century China and the contemporary U.S. You may also want them to compare contemporary customs in the city and the country.

6. Read "I Have Lived and I Have Loved" aloud to the students. Write the poem on the chalkboard but delete certain words (you decide). As you read it again, pause before each deletion. Have the students brainstorm appropriate fillers. If the deletion comes at the end of a line, make sure the filler obeys the poem's rhyme scheme.

7. Ask the students to write poems of their own. Give them a simple scheme, such as the one in "I Have Lived..." Ask them to write <u>about</u> the theme of love and loss and resolution.

The River Merchant's Wife: A Letter

While my hair was still cut straight across my forehead
I played about the front gate, pulling flowers.
You came by on bamboo stilts, playing horse,
You walked about my seat, playing with blue plums.
And we went on living in the village of Chokan:
Two small people, without dislike or suspicion.

At fourteen I married My Lord you.
I never laughed, being bashful.
Lowering my head, I looked at the wall.
Called to, a thousand times, I never looked back.

At fifteen I stopped scowling.
I desired my dust to be mingled with yours.
Forever and forever and forever.
Why should I climb the lookout?

At sixteen you departed.
You went into far Ku-to-en, by the river of swirling eddies,
And you have been gone five months.
And the monkeys make sorrowful noise overhead.

You dragged your feet when you went out.
By the gate now, the moss is grown, the different mosses.
Too deep to clear them away!
The leaves fall early this autumn, in wind.
The paired butterflies are already yellow with August
Over the grass in the West garden;
They hurt me. I grow older.
If you are coming down through the narrows of the river Kiang,
Please let me know beforehand,
And I will come out to meet you
As far as Cho-fu-Sa.

--Ezra Pound, 1885-1972
after Li Po, 705-762

I Have Lived and I Have Loved

I have lived and I have loved;
I have waked and I have slept;
I have sung and I have danced;
I have smiled and I have wept;
I have won and wasted treasure;
I have had my fill of pleasure;
And all these things were weariness,
And some of them were dreariness.
And all these things--but two things
Were emptiness and pain;
And Love--it was the best of them;
And Sleep--worth all the rest of them.

--Anonymous

High School Lesson Plan 2

Title A Laboratory Activity: The Unknown Shapes of Atoms

Content Science and language arts

Grade Level Tenth grade

Author Joni Lynn Grisham
Pittsburg High School
Pittsburg, CA

Learning outcomes:

discovering how scientists made a model of an atom without ever seeing one

Science vocabulary:

shape words (round, square, triangular, etc.)
atom, molecule, nucleus
prove/proof, hypothesize/hypothesis, estimate, evidence

ESL vocabulary:

marble, plywood, shoot/roll (the marble)
follow the path (of the marble)

Materials:

several pieces of plywood about 2 ft. X 2 ft.
one geometrically shaped wood block about 5 inches
in diameter or length and 1 1/2 to 2 inches wide
glued to the back of each piece of plywood
one sheet of paper taped onto the front (upper face) of each piece of plywood
one marble per piece of plywood
one pencil per piece of plywood

Procedure:

1. Divide students into groups of two or three.

2. Place the plywood pieces on the floor, the side with the glued-on block facing down so that it can't be seen.

3. One student shoots the marble into the center of the piece of plywood.

4. A second student traces the path of the marble under the plywood by drawing a line on the paper from the point where the marble enters to where it exits.

5. Students take turns shooting the marble all around the piece of plywood until they feel they can hypothesize the shape of the wood block that is under the plywood. (It is wise to give them a time limit of about three minutes.)

6. Students draw the shape of the wood block in one corner of the paper.*

7. Ask the groups questions about their results, such as:
   How did you come to a decision about the shape under the piece of plywood?
   Name two other ways we can see items which are hidden from view.
   What would scientists do to prove their hypothesis to others?

8. Have students write a description of the procedure they used to discover the shape.

* If you want students to complete the activity using more than one of the plywood pieces, have each group remove the paper they used and replace it with another sheet of paper. Rotate groups until students have completed the procedure several times, having groups compare their findings.

High School Lesson Plan 3

Title Understanding Powers of Ten

Content Mathematics and language arts

Grade Level Ninth and tenth grades

Author Adapted from a lesson by James Redos
Montgomery Blair High School
Silver Spring, MD

Learning outcomes:

defining prefixes
defining "powers of ten"
completing a patterned list

Vocabulary:

kilometer, hectometer, dekameter, meter, decimeter, centimeter, millimeter

Materials:

chalkboard

Procedure:

1. Review the reasons why people find it necessary and useful to measure. Ask students:
   Why do we want to measure?
   What do we want to measure?
   How do we measure in science?
   Where else do we need to measure?
   What does the size "X Large" mean?
   I have a shirt of the size 17 1/2, 34. What does each number mean?
   What about pants size 36 X 32?
   How do people measure gasoline in the United States? In South America?
   In (other countries)?

2. Review the basis for the metric system: powers of ten. Ask:
   How do I measure the distance from here (point to shoulder) to the floor?
   What is the standard metric unit of length?
   What do we get when we subdivide the meter stick into ten pieces? Into 100 pieces?
   Into 1000 pieces?

3. Introduce "powers of ten":
   Write 10^2 on the chalkboard and explain that the expression means there are two tens which must be multiplied together, or ten squared. Write (10 X 10) on the chalkboard.
   Write 10^3 and ask a student to explain what it means.
   Continue with expressions for negative powers of ten as well.

4. Write the words in the following patterned list on the chalkboard and have students add the numerical expressions to complete it.

1000 meters	=	1 kilometer	(Students write 10^3)
100 meters	=	1 hectometer	
10 meters	=	1 dekameter	
1 meter			
0.1 meter	=	1 decimeter	
0.01 meter	=	1 centimeter	
0.001 meter	=	1 millimeter	

High School Lesson Plan 4

Title	Explaining Exclusive State Powers
Content	U.S. Government and language arts
Grade Level	Tenth through twelfth grades
Author	Adapted from a lesson by Joseph Bellino Montgomery Blair High School Silver Spring, MD

Learning outcomes:

reading and discussing a passage from the class textbook
reviewing "exclusive federal powers"
defining and giving examples of "exclusive state powers"
defining and giving examples of "concurrent powers"

Vocabulary:

exclusive powers, concurrent powers, levy and collect taxes, make and enforce laws, set standards, determine voter qualifications, conduct elections, govern marriage and divorce laws, govern school laws

Materials:

pages 101 and 102 of Government Packets for ESOL Students (social studies textbook produced for ESL students in Montgomery County, MD)
three overhead transparencies (OHT) with drawings illustrating:
#1 - exclusive federal powers
#2 - exclusive state powers
#3 - concurrent powers

Procedure:

1. Review the exclusive federal powers.
   Divide students into three groups. Ask: What does "exclusive federal power" mean?
   Display OHT #1, point to one illustration and have one group identify the exclusive federal power it represents. Provide students with one or more examples of the power and encourage them to add others.
   Repeat the procedure for each illustration in OHT #1.

2. Introduce exclusive state powers.
   Have a student read aloud page 101 (discussion of exclusive state powers).
   Ask students to explain in their own words the powers that are described.
   Display OHT #2, point to one illustration (e.g., picture of someone voting), and have one group identify the exclusive state power it illustrates. Ask: Does who can vote change from state to state?
   Ask: What else can change from state to state? If I get married in Maryland, may I get a divorce in another state?

Continue with similar questions to elicit remaining exclusive state powers.

3. Introduce concurrent powers.
   Have a student read aloud page 102 (discussion of concurrent powers).
   Ask students to explain in their own words the powers that are described.
   Display OHT #3 and have students refer to the text to explain each of the illustrations and the concurrent powers they represent. Give an example of each and have students provide additional examples which explain their experiences and knowledge of each power.

4. Review of all three categories of powers.
   Display the OHTs in mixed order and have students write the name of the category of powers represented. Check responses.
   Divide students into three groups. Each group works up a brief skit which illustrates one of the three categories of powers. (Skit will be presented in next class meeting.)